DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 182 868 EA 012 510

AUTHOR	Gudridge, Beatrice M.
TITLE	Teacher Competency: Problems & Solutions. AASA Critical Issues Report.
INSTITUTION	American Association of School Administrators, Arlington, Va.: Education News Service, Sacramento, Calif.
PUB DATE	80
NOTE	77p.: Parts may not reproduce clearly due to colored background.
AVAILABLE FROM	AASA, 1801 North Moore St., Arlington, VA 22209 (Stock No. 021-00332: $9.95 prepaid: quantity discounts)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	*Administrator Role: Case Studies (Education): *Effective Teaching: Elementary Secondary Education: *Inservice Teacher Education: Records (Forms): *Teacher Evaluation: *Teacher Improvement: *Testing

ABSTRACT

Teacher competency is the focus of this book, which serves as a guide for educational administrators who want to improve their teachers' effectiveness. Topics covered include testing teachers for competency, administrator role in improving principals and teachers, teacher evaluation, inservice education, and teacher centers. (Author/LD)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

ED182868

AASA Critical Issues Report

TEACHER COMPETENCY

Problems & Solutions

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

by Beatrice M. Gudridge

Produced by
Education News Service
Sacramento, Calif.
for the
American Association of School Administrators

EA 012 510

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

AASA

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

The AASA Critical Issues Series

Many of the critical issues facing schools today are controversial. Some are new. None has a single best answer. Yet, administrators and boards of education must determine what is best for their communities. Realizing this, the American Association of School Administrators saw the need for a new series of in-depth reports to help administrators and boards.

This is the fifth report in the AASA Critical Issues Series. Like the others, it provides an in-depth analysis of the root causes and possible answers to a critical school problem. Special emphasis is placed on "how to" suggestions from experts and successful programs, thus saving schools the costly and time-consuming effort of "reinventing the wheel." The goal is to help schools learn from the successes and failures of others — and from the lessons of research — in clear, non-jargon English.

Our thanks to all those who helped — administrators and other school personnel, evaluation experts, teacher trainers and state education agency personnel. The manuscript was written by Beatrice M. Gudridge, an education writer and communications consultant, Rockville, Md. Editor was Shirley Boes Neill, Education News Service, Sacramento, Calif. Research assistance was provided by the San Mateo Education Resources Center, Redwood City, Calif.

Paul B. Salmon
Executive Director
AASA

Gary Marx
Associate Director, AASA
Office of Communications

Design and Graphics: Norman Lubeck, Burlingame, Calif.

Copyright 1980, American Association of School Administrators

Library of Congress Catalog Card No. 80-651-88

Single copy, $9.95 prepaid (which includes $1 for postage and handling). Multiple copies, $8.95 each. Two to nine copies, 10% discount; write for prices for 10 or more copies. Orders for less than $15 must be accompanied by payment in full. Order from AASA, 1801 N. Moore St., Arlington, Va. 22209. Stock No. 021-00332.

This report was reviewed by AASA and approved for publication. Approval does not signify that the contents reflect the views or policies of AASA.

Contents

Overview 5

I. What's a Good Teacher? 9
Researchers are finding out; teacher trainers describe "good" teachers.

II. Testing Teachers for Competency 15
The public backs the testing of teachers. The unions object. Many states join the movement.

III. How To Reward Teachers for Good Teaching 21
A special feature pinpointing dozens of suggestions for rewarding outstanding teachers.

IV. What Can Administrators Do? 25
Increasingly, principals are called on to be instructional leaders. Are they performing this job? Administrators play a key role in improving principals *and* teachers.

V. Evaluation To Improve Teachers 35
Evaluation experts give tips on improving evaluation, thereby improving teachers.

VI. Learning Time: How To Get It; How To Use It 50
A special feature describing how schools in Austin, Tex., and Fairfield, Conn., eliminate time-wasters that eat into instructional time.

VII. Inservice Education 52
It's not what it used to be. What teachers want in the "new look" inservice programs. Descriptions of workable programs.

VIII. Teacher Centers 65
Teachers are designing their own improvement programs in teacher centers, one of the fastest growing new developments in education. What administrators and board members need to know about them; examples of working centers.

IX. Inservice Education for Special Education 76
State education agencies say they lack competent teachers for special education. Federal sources reveal what's needed, what's provided.

Overview

"Not counting nightmares," one superintendent told an AASA convention, "I spend at least 60 hours a week thinking about my school system."

If he's like the rest of his colleagues around the country, one of the things on his mind is teacher competency. The topic has surfaced recently as an attention-getting story in some of the nation's most frequently read news magazines, in the Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools and as a top concern of some U.S. educators.

Frequently, the stories neglect to mention that as many as 85 to 95 percent — some would say 98 percent — of the nation's elementary and secondary teachers are probably performing their jobs adequately. In a **Critical Issues Survey** conducted in 1978, school administrators estimated that from 5 to 15 percent of the teachers in their districts do not give adequate job performance. One-half of the more than 1,700 administrators responding to the survey said their districts had dismissed teachers for "incompetence" over a three-year period covered by the survey. Some administrators are quick to point out, however, that the percentage of incompetent persons engaged in teaching is probably no higher than it is in any other profession.

Why the increased news coverage of and public and legislative attention to the issue of teacher competency? A number of factors seems to be involved. Primary among them are the advent of the student minimum competency movement, declining test scores, several widely publicized reports of illiterate students who received high school diplomas, wavering public confidence in the nation's schools as shown by polls and several reports of substantial numbers of teacher applicants or newly hired teachers who failed to pass job screening or basic skills tests.

To illustrate: Here's a widely reported incident — some 800 applicants for teaching jobs in Dallas and more than 500 first-year Dallas teachers took a test of 60 verbal and math skills in 1978. Nearly one-half got fewer than 31 answers correct, and 36 percent fell below the predicted norm.

Another report: After receiving what it termed a "totally incoherent" letter from an English teacher, a Stamford, Conn., school board passed a resolution requiring teachers applying for jobs "to demonstrate mastery of written and spoken English as a prerequisite for being hired." The board also resolved that currently employed teachers should either pass an English test or receive remedial training.

Some recent samplings of student opinion do little to enhance the public's attitude toward schools and teachers. In a 1979 Gallup survey of attitudes of American youth toward public schools, 58 percent of the students said they weren't asked to work hard enough in elementary school. Forty-five percent said the same thing about high school work requirements.

In another 1979 Gallup poll, citizens were asked what U.S. schools would have to do to rate an "A" in performance. The answers: (1) improve the quality of teachers, (2) increase discipline and (3) set higher standards.

Prof. Michael Scriven of the Institute of Evaluation at the University of San Francisco commented: "When the public sees kids doing so badly, they begin to ask where the fault lies. One of the places they look is the classroom."

U.S. News and World Report in a 1978 issue noted "a growing concern across the country that some public school teachers are inadequate and that this inadequacy is being reflected by thousands of American students who cannot read, write or add

properly." One year later, the same magazine reported that public demands to upgrade education — including teacher competency — "are reaching fever pitch, reflecting wide discontent."

One result of the publicity given to real or alleged incompetency is a demand for more teacher accountability. The means: testing teachers as well as students. The Education Commission of the States (ECS), Denver, reports that high school students in 36 states are required by legislative mandate or state board of education regulations to take and pass minimum competency tests before receiving a high school diploma. ECS researchers predict that the next big drive by states may be a full scale effort to test the competency of new teachers. Russell B. Vlaanderen, ECS research director, says: "It isn't only the right, it's the duty of the state to make certain that if it is demanding competency for students, it's getting competency from teachers."

The teacher testing movement is under way in several Southern states: Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Arkansas and Virginia. Legislatures in Colorado, Arizona, Missouri, Vermont and Kansas considered the possibility in 1979, and bills in some of these states — particularly Colorado and Vermont — may be reintroduced. Illinois lawmakers also are indicating interest in teacher competency testing. Many of these states already have specified or are deliberating over the setting of competency criteria that would have to be met by graduates, fresh out of teacher colleges, before they could be certified as teachers. Some states are considering Georgia's pioneering efforts to overhaul its whole system, which includes plans to test teachers on the job.

Some school districts, notably Dade County (Miami), Fla., have taken dramatic strides in teacher competency testing. A widespread move in this direction, which some observers think is bound to come, would be bitterly opposed by the teacher unions. Judging by the 1979 Gallup poll on public schools, the American public would be all for it. The poll asked whether teachers should be tested every few years to see if they were keeping up with developments in their fields. "Yes," answered a whopping 85 percent. The same percentage said school administrators also should be required to take such tests.

Other Reasons for Concern

Declining enrollment at both elementary and secondary levels and an accompanying "locked in" teaching force are other reasons leading to concern about teacher competency. Teachers are staying — and graying — in their present jobs because enrollment declines in many parts of the country translate into fewer opportunities to move or advance for currently employed teachers and fewer openings for newly trained teachers.

In 1978, approximately 190,000 young graduates were prepared to enter teaching, according to the National Education Association (NEA). But only 75,000 teaching positions were open to them. The National Center for Education Statistics adds that between 150,000 and 200,000 qualified aspirants would be on hand to fill any openings in the teaching profession "for at least several years."

The surplus in supply means little, however, to most school districts because of their decreased demand. Little turnover is expected.

Special needs: Not enough teachers are sufficiently trained to competently handle increasing needs in several education areas. Of foremost concern are students who speak little or no English and handicapped students — those who are mainstreamed into regular classrooms as well as those who are severely handicapped or otherwise require educational services outside regular classrooms.

The federal Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (BEH) said as many as 85,000 new special education teachers would be needed in two years, starting in the 1979-80 school year. Colleges and universities are producing only about one-fourth that number annually. And, despite current efforts by BEH to provide for inservice training opportunities in special education for on-the-job teachers, moreover, many are still untrained.

How pressured do teachers feel? Teachers trying to cope with mainstreamed handicapped children, for example, say they lack not only the skills to work with such youngsters but also the time to write individualized education programs, student evaluations and parent notifications.

Reaction is coming from the teacher unions. At NEA's 1979 annual convention, delegates resolved to lobby to amend Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. They want to strengthen the role of classroom teachers in the decision-making process, to gain more inservice training and to give teachers the right to appeal a placement decision for a handicapped child. Delegates to the 1979 convention of the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) decided to lobby for money to use teacher centers to train teachers of handicapped children. AFT delegates also urged more careful screening of handicapped students and said that a handicapped student should be counted as three students in calculations of class size.

Bilingual education: Approximately 3.6 million school-age youngsters in the United States have lim-

ited English proficiency. In other words, they are unable to learn in a regular classroom because they lack skills in reading, speaking, writing and understanding English.

Under the 1978 amendments to the Bilingual Education Act, all children of limited English proficiency are eligible to participate in federal bilingual education programs.

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education estimates, however, that only about 302,000, or less than 6 percent of the children aged 5-14 who have limited English proficiency are being served by federal programs. To serve the total, a federal education official wrote in 1978, would require from 129,000 to 200,000 teachers. On hearing those figures, one observer noted that true bilingual teachers — persons equally proficient in two languages — "are as scarce as snowshoes in Hawaii."

There are no reliable current figures of bilingual teachers on the job, said Theodora Predaris of the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education in an interview for this **Critical Issues Report.** "In many cases, it's a monolingual teacher with a bilingual aide," she says.

A 1976 Teachers Language Skills Study conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) estimated that about 100,000 teachers were teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) in public schools. About 22 percent of them were using a language other than English in instruction. However, NCES said, only 18,000 out of the 100,000 were fully qualified to teach ESL, let alone bilingual education.

Predaris says a teacher shortage in bilingual education definitely exists. "It's not so much in Spanish, although here, too, there is a question of whether you're getting quality teaching. Some of the new well qualified teachers coming out of colleges can't get jobs because other teachers have seniority."

Tired teachers: Many districts must cope with the problems that accompany an aging teaching staff — problems often summarized in the term "mid-career blahs." One veteran Minneapolis teacher put it this way: "We old-timers used to rely on young blood to circulate fresh ideas more often then we realized. Then, openings for new teachers dried up . . . and we realized that an aging faculty would have to take special precautions against 'tired blood.' " A stronger statement comes from B. Frank Brown of the Institute for Development of Educational Activities (I/D/E/A). "Unless we improve the competence of teachers currently in service, the ideas and teaching styles of the 1960s and 1970s will carry over into the 1980s and 1990s."

The Rand Corp. Change Agent Study of federally funded education programs concluded that teachers seem to "peak out" after five to seven years of teaching. They either maintain their level of effectiveness — in the best cases — or they become less effective. The Rand researchers said, however, that this "calcifying" effect appeared to be less an intrinsic characteristic of teachers or of the teaching role than "testimony to the way schools are managed and the way professional development activities are provided for staff."

Are 'burnout' and fatigue part of the competency problem? A hard reality administrators in many districts must face is that teacher morale is low. Teachers have been blamed for everything from sagging SAT scores to failure to maintain discipline, and the criticism is undermining the self-esteem and confidence of some teachers.

For many, teaching is a lonesome profession with rare opportunities to interact with other adults and insufficient recognition and approval from superiors, parents and students. For some other teachers, school is a combat zone where fear of vandalism and violence is the teacher's nagging companion. In a five-year study of teachers assaulted by students, University of California psychiatrist Albert Bloch concluded that such teachers react like a soldier who's fought too long on the front line. They get combat fatigue. Such teachers come down with ailments like migrane headaches, ulcers, hypertension, depression and insomnia.

Teacher burnout — a feeling of being locked into a job routine that is threatening or stressful — first attracted public notice in the late 1970s. Thousands of teachers reported stress and tension as their biggest health problems in a major national study of teacher health conducted by *Instructor Magazine*. The tensions, according to the teachers, stem from lack of teaching materials, schedules that do not allow for breaks, discipline problems, public pressure, lack of preparation or inservice training for new programs, poor physical conditions in some schools, and the failure of administrators to support teachers against parental pressures and student misbehavior. Willard McGuire, president of the NEA, added other causes of teacher burnout: violence, vandalism, involuntary transfers, oversized classes, excessive paperwork and too many tests.

The Good News

Not all of the news on the teacher competency front is bleak. Consider these developments which are detailed in this report:

- The ingredients of good teaching — the kind that result in heightened student achievement — have

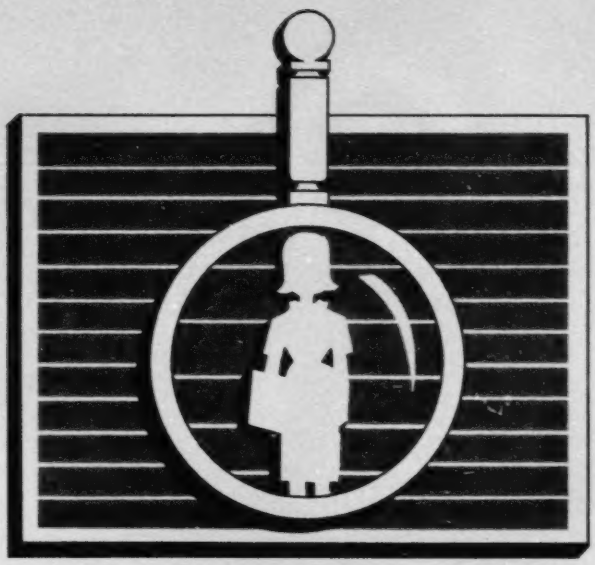
been pinpointed by many meticulous research studies over the past decade and carefully validated in classrooms. It is now possible for teachers to choose from among an array of skills, techniques, attitudes and behaviors in teaching their students, and to be reasonably sure that they will "work." Most of these cause and effect studies have been undertaken at the elementary school level, and they apply to student mastery of basic skills, but the news is encouraging for all educators.

- Many school districts are leading the way in a markedly sophisticated approach toward "clinical supervision" of teaching which includes: setting school goals, conducting needs assessments, setting performance objectives, carrying out careful classroom observations, creating job targets and constantly evaluating teacher performance.
- Inservice education is enjoying a renaissance, with more attention and sometimes more money from federal and state sources and with an entirely new look. Working cooperatively in hundreds of school districts around the country, administrators and teachers are designing practical new kinds of staff development programs keyed to the specific problems of teachers, the local school or the whole district.
- The teacher center movement, buttressed by federal legislation, is viewed by teachers as a significant approach to inservice education. In some of the centers, moreover, administrators from the superintendent on down are getting as deeply involved as the teachers.
- Many forward-looking superintendents are recognizing the need to upgrade the instructional leadership capacities of principals as a means of enabling teachers to act with competence and assurance and students to learn.

It all boils down to this: Educators want to do a good job. Teachers certainly want to be competent, and so do superintendents, principals and other administrators. Fortunately, there are numerous examples of how this much-sought competency is being achieved. They are described in the following chapters of this report.

CHAPTER I

What's a Good Teacher?



What makes a good teacher?

Researchers have been trying to answer that question for at least 25 years. In fact, research on the topic of teacher effectiveness and teacher competency is one of education researchers' favorite topics.

To illustrate: a review of research findings on teacher effectiveness conducted for this **Critical Issues Report** by the San Mateo Educational Resources Center, Redwood City, Calif., yielded more than 400 abstracts. The search was limited, moreover, to recent submissions to ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) and other data collection systems.

Research into teacher effectiveness often attempts to separate the sentimental ("loves children") from the scientific ("gets results"). Some researchers now contend that the patient, plodding search for a "scientific basis for the art of teaching" is reaping fruit. One such researcher is N.L. Gage of Stanford University. Along with many other researchers, Gage believes some solid conclusions can be drawn from years of common findings, careful observations, measurement and statistical work.

One of the findings favored by researchers defines the good, effective teacher as one whose students show significant gains on reading and mathematics achievement tests. Moreover, some research is now available to show what the teacher must do to make such gains possible. Here are some of the findings of recent studies:

Research: Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study
Conclusion: Five interrelated teacher behaviors lead to learning.

The massive six-year Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES) was conducted by the California Commission on Teacher Preparation and Licensing under the auspices of the National Institute of Education. The purpose of the study was to identify classroom conditions and teaching activities that foster student learning and lead to cognitive outcomes in elementary schools. The study focused on instruction in reading and mathematics in grades 2 and 5.

The major finding of the study is often described as a common sense conclusion: The more time students spend "engaged" in (i.e., paying attention to) a learning task, the more they will master the task.

The researchers also tried to determine the teaching behaviors and the characteristics of classroom environment that lead to student learning. Specifically, they were interested in determining the impact of five behaviors which, they believe, all instructors do or should do: diagnosis, prescription, presentation, monitoring and feedback. Here's a sampling of what the researchers found regarding the characteristics of "successful" teachers (those whose students attained more cognitive growth than other students in research samplings) in each of the five behavior areas:

Diagnosis: The successful teacher must have in-depth knowledge of the subject being taught and also be able to see differences between students — differences in cognitive performance, work habits, personality. The study concluded that teachers who are able to combine knowledge of subject matter and awareness of student differences have a foundation for instructional planning.

Prescription: The BTES researchers call this "a complex area," and they admit they got mixed results in the data collection. The major finding regarding this behavior was that instructional programs must be "appropriate" or "reasonable" for the needs of the students. What would be inappropriate or unreasonable? Giving students too many tasks they cannot do.

Based on BTES results, the researchers say it is appropriate for students to spend over half of their time on tasks they are able to perform with a high degree of success.

Presentation: One specific finding regarding this behavior was that students paid more attention when the teacher was skillful in presenting mathematics. A particularly successful class, the researchers said, was one in which the teacher has a regular routine of beginning each lesson with a presentation in a group setting. The teacher would tell students what they were going to work on, make sure all students understood the assignment and go over examples where appropriate.

Monitoring: "Students pay attention more when they are more often involved in substantive interaction, and teacher questions are an important part of that process," the researchers said. They also concluded that teachers would do well to monitor seatwork by going around the room giving help or feedback as frequently as possible. "Good teachers do this not only to keep students on task but also to find out as much as they can about how students are doing so they can plan further instruction."

Feedback: "Academic feedback had the strongest and most consistent positive relationship to achievement," according to the researchers. They recommended that it be provided as often as possible, because "when students receive more frequent feedback they pay attention more and learn more." The researchers said they did not know what kind of feedback is most valuable; instead, they suggested many different types: question and answer recitation; programmed texts; noncredentialed instructors such as aides, volunteers and peers; routine checking of assigned homework; and oral reading. Finally, the researchers noted a value in reward systems which acknowledge major learning events. "They give the student recognition for achievement, for working and for succeeding."

What purpose can the findings serve? The BTES researchers consider what they have learned as a "model" or "framework" for analyzing and describing the teaching/learning process. "It would be appropriate," the researchers said, "to use the model as a basis for observing, analyzing and discussing ways to teach." The five teacher behaviors, the researchers added, could help teachers evaluate their teaching performance, and they could serve as a basis for analyzing the strengths and weaknesses of the instructional process.

Note: A bibliography of materials prepared by the BTES researchers is available from the California State Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing, 1020 "O" St., Sacramento, Calif. 95814. The findings reported above were taken from *Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study, A Summary of the Final Report*, Report VII-1; September 1978, available from the commission as long as the supply lasts or through the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) system. Ask for document 165 322.

Research: Federal Reserve Bank, Philadelphia
Conclusion: Teacher/student link is important.

A study by the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia in cooperation with the Philadelphia Public Schools examined the growth in reading achievement for some 1,800 fourth graders. It found that the more time elementary school teachers spent away from a "direct link" to their pupils — through absence, in-service training during class hours or even by using reading aides — the less the pupils were able to improve their reading achievement.

Research: University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education
Conclusion: Effective teacher has 'withitness.'

The effective teacher is "with it," according to Linda M. Armstrong reporting on a study of classroom organization for the University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education. "Withitness," a term coined by author J.S. Kounin, refers to "the proverbial teacher with eyes in the back of her head." In other words, the teacher has the ability to stay continuously aware of what's going on in the classroom and to communicate this awareness to students.

The "with-it" teacher:

- Positions herself so that she can monitor classroom activities at all times.
- Regularly checks the classroom and responds to problems as they begin and before they escalate.
- Does not become so immersed in one student or one group that she is unaware of impending chaos elsewhere in the classroom.

Teachers who are effective managers and instructors hold their students accountable for their actions and behavior as well as for academic performance, Anderson found. She adds: At the beginning of the school year, the teacher lets students know what appropriate behavior is expected. She gives them practice in class procedures, and she establishes herself as someone students can depend upon for consistent enforcement of the rules.

Madeline Hunter Describes A Good Teacher

Good teachers are like master chefs, expertly combining the nutrients of learning, says Madeline Hunter, professor of education and principal of the lab school at the University of California, Los Angeles. Hunter's comments comparing excellent teaching and excellent cooking were made at a 1979 seminar sponsored by AASA's National Academy for School Executives. She was chosen to lead the seminar because she's one of the nation's top teacher trainers. Her program has been tested in Long Beach, Calif., for a decade. The whole state of Washington has adopted it. It is being used in North Carolina and several other states to train administrators who then become teacher trainers.

The "basic white sauce" for teaching, says Hunter, is the way the teacher designs the lesson. She adds: "All artistry begins with the basic recipe which (in the case of white sauce) calls for liquid, thickener, seasonings, heat." If the lesson is too salty, she says, the master teacher leaves out some salt; if it's too bland, she adds a pinch. "The teacher never forgets that she is the cook."

Here is Hunter's description of a good teacher in action in the classroom:

The teacher is teaching to an objective. Hunter calls this the "string of pearls" approach. Each activity of a lesson leads to the next activity, and all are connected. All lead to a major objective. The good teacher doesn't lose time with the "egg on the wall" kind of lessons (little bits of knowledge splattered all over the place), or with "birdwalking" (meaningless digressions from the lesson). The teacher constantly asks herself: What are the kids going to be able to do at the end of this lesson?

The objective is at the correct level of difficulty. This is diagnosis. The teacher already knows something of what to expect from her students, but all the time she's teaching, she's making split-second decisions: "Do the kids know it? Shall I move on? Do they know it, but aren't sure of it? Shall I give some more examples? Do they not know it? Is this the day I abandon ship?" (Maybe there's a big game on at school, and students simply cannot keep their minds on the lesson.)

The teacher monitors and adjusts the lesson. All the while the lesson is going on, the teacher is getting the feedback described above and is adjusting the lesson accordingly. This is where the "basic white sauce" and its variations come in. The teacher may use various motivational principles — raising or lowering the level of concern in the class, praising building up a little nervousness (Hunter calls this "rattling the cages"), altering the "feeling tone" of the classroom from pleasant to unpleasant and back again, practicing reinforcement techniques which can be either positive or negative, stepping up the interest level, modeling herself the correct skills she wants from students, checking for understanding, initiating guided practice, introducing independent practice, individualizing (doing what specific youngsters need at a particular moment), keeping everybody in the classroom functioning. Hunter compares monitoring and adjusting the lesson to target shooting: know what it is you're aiming for, and whether or not you're hitting it.

The teacher knows the principles of learning. Hunter describes these as the scientific principles which underlie the art of teaching: factors affecting motivation to learn, factors affecting the rate and degree of learning, factors affecting retention of learning and factors affecting transfer of learning.

The teacher continues to grow. Observation, conferences and inservice education push a teacher to analyze her lessons, to absorb the principles of learning and to look at teaching in terms of cause/effect relationships, says the UCLA educator. She maintains that if teachers can be helped to become effective, administrators can organize schools in any way they want. The important part, she says, is not to impose a particular style of teaching on teachers but to help them teach better in their own style.

Other Findings from Research

Positive expectations: The most marked difference between good and bad teachers, according to several studies, is the trait of positive expectations. Good teachers believe their students will succeed — and they do. In a study of 30 Maryland schools, for example, both principals and teachers in the "better" schools expected a lot of the students. When third graders were asked whether their school achievement depended on hard work or good luck, students in the better schools were far more likely to say, "Hard work."

Inspirational leader: The teacher who is producing maximum achievement gains is probably producing a healthy attitude toward school and a better self-concept among students as well, according to researcher Donald Medley of the University of Virginia. Such a teacher has learned to establsh rapport, adds Homer Coker of West Georgia College, Carrollton, and students work for that teacher. As he put it: "The football player doesn't play for dear old Harvard; he plays for the coach."

Knowledgeable instructor: Successful teachers, according to Coker, have learned to use a tremendous repertoire of cognitive teaching skills and all sorts of motivational techniques. Such teachers are aware of the times when they are helping youngsters *acquire* basic skills and of the times when pupils are *utilizing* basic skills. They don't get the two mixed up.

Balance of activities: The effective teacher creates an appropriate balance between student self-direction and teacher control of learning activities, say researchers Ruth and Robert Soar of the University of Florida. Some learning activities are selected by pupils, while others are teacher-directed and include some drill.

Neutral classroom climate: Most achievement gains take place in classrooms where the emotional climate is "essentially neutral," the University of Florida researchers found. In other words, teachers tend to sharply limit freedom of student movement and socialization. At the same time, however, they encourage students to explore ideas and concepts.

Conclusion

All of the studies reported above showed scant evidence that any one method of teaching is superior to another. Nor did they discover any 100 percent foolproof teaching strategies that will work with all pupils all the time. What works with one group of students, say the researchers, can have the opposite effect on another, depending on such factors as grade level, learning task and socioeconomic status.

What separates the competent teacher from the less competent, the researchers say, is the pattern of teaching techniques. In other words, the problem is not so much a lack of good techniques as it is knowing which ones are right for which students under specific circumstances.

Case Study: Reno, Nev. Helping Good Teachers Become Great

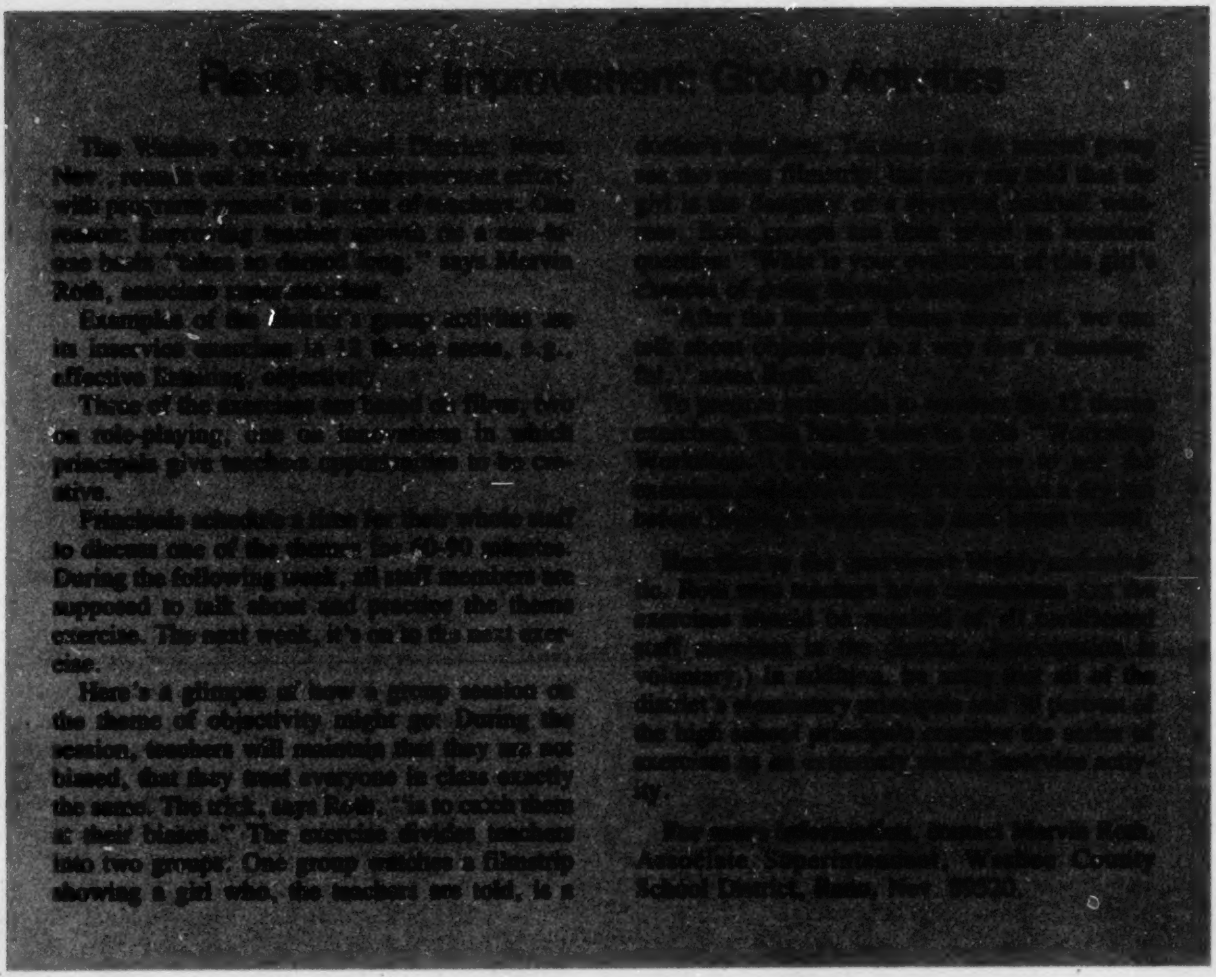
The first step in developing teacher competency is knowing the difference between "good" and "great" teachers. Only then is it possible to help the good ones to become outstanding, explained Marvin Roth, associate superintendent of the Washoe County School District, Reno, Nev., in an interview for this report.

Roth says his district is identifying great teachers and linking what it finds to inservice training for the less-great. How? One of the techniques used by the district, along with others, in hiring new teachers is the Selection Research, Inc. (SRI) "Teacher Perceiver Interviews."

"We knew some time ago," says Roth, "that some of our teachers were doing a terrific job, so we interviewed them first to find out what they were doing that was so effective. We discovered that they were not carbon copies of each other, but that many kinds of strengths could add up to super teaching."

By using the Teacher Perceiver system and expanding upon what was learned, Roth says his district has determined many characteristics that distinguish good from great teachers. Some examples:

- Great teachers hold certain beliefs that set them apart. They believe not only that children can and want to learn but also that "I as a teacher" can help them.
- Great teachers believe that teaching children is more important than teaching subjects. They look upon teaching as the focus of their lives.
- Great teachers have certain characteristics that develop a learning climate: (1) They have empathy. They not only understand how the student feels, but they let the student know they understand. (2) They listen. While good teachers listen to get information, great teachers listen to help the student. (3) They are objective. They listen to both sides and get information from those who will be affected before they make a decision. (4) They see people as individuals and not as blacks, Indians or the kids who live in trailers. "I get tired of hearing teachers say they love children," says Roth. "I ask them whether



they love Mary and Johnny, and I deliberately mention the names of the kids who are giving them trouble."

- Great teachers have characteristics that activate learning: (1) They have a drive to build rapport, which Roth stresses is a continuing function. (2) They have a tendency toward completeness. Roth explains that some qualities are not complete without others — organization needs to be balanced with flexibility; high expectation of children needs to be coupled with acceptance of children where they are. (3) They are innovative. Roth says, "A teacher should have 20 years of experience, not one year of experience 20 times."

- Great teachers have the drive to share their knowledge with students. Roth notes that all administrators want teachers to be competent in subject matter. But, he adds, "not all Einsteins can teach math."

- Great teachers read and collect things — on vacation, for example — to bring to class.

- Great teachers use specific teaching techniques which they can describe.

- Great teachers derive satisfaction from their investment in their work — not from what they do as teachers, but from seeing children learn.

The Teacher Perceiver Interview: How It Works

Identifying "what it is that a teacher does best " is the focus of every Teacher Perceiver Interview, according to Gale Muller, executive vice president and general manager of SRI Perceiver Academies, Lin-

coln, Nebr. Muller told this **Critical Issues Report** that the interview requires principals and other administrators to listen for teacher personality traits which have been validated by research as positively related to teaching. The list of traits includes: mission, empathy, rapport drive, individualized perception, listening, investment, input drive, activation, innovation, Gestalt, objectivity and focus.

In the interview, which can be used both for selecting teachers and for developing skills of those already in service, the principal asks a number of predetermined questions (e.g., related to sense of mission, objectivity), analyzes the answers and creates a "portrait" of the individual teacher.

The aim is to develop those skills that already exist, to affirm them and to challenge the teacher "to do more of what she's already doing." Suppose, for example, the interview reveals that a teacher has considerable talent in organizing classroom instruction. The principal would encourage her to continue honing that skill and point out ways in which she might become more adept. Muller says SRI provides training for the initial interview and for a series of other interviews which teach principals how to continue dialogue with the teacher and to keep her motivated to sharpen the strengths she already possesses.

Reno's experience: A committee of Reno teachers and principals selected the Teacher Perceiver approach to improving teacher competency over several other systems. Associate Supt. Roth was the first person from the district to be trained at SRI headquarters in Lincoln. Subsequently, the school board provided funds for another dozen administrators to be trained. Training for one person costs approximately $1,300; less for groups. "We got the costs way down — to about $200 to $300 each," says Roth. "We use those who have had the training to train other principals in the district, perhaps bringing in a consultant at the beginning or end of the sessions." All but about six out of approximately 100 administrators from 53 schools in the district have been trained in the process, according to Roth.

To train a principal to conduct the Teacher Perceiver Interviews takes 10 full days spread over four to six months and an equivalent amount of time in assigned homework, says Roth. It's a lot of work, he concedes, and it takes principals away from their schools a full day at a time. But, he adds, "they keep coming." Why? "Most principals agree that it's the best use we make of their time." Most of the training takes place during the school year, but some principals actually prefer it over holidays or during the summer.

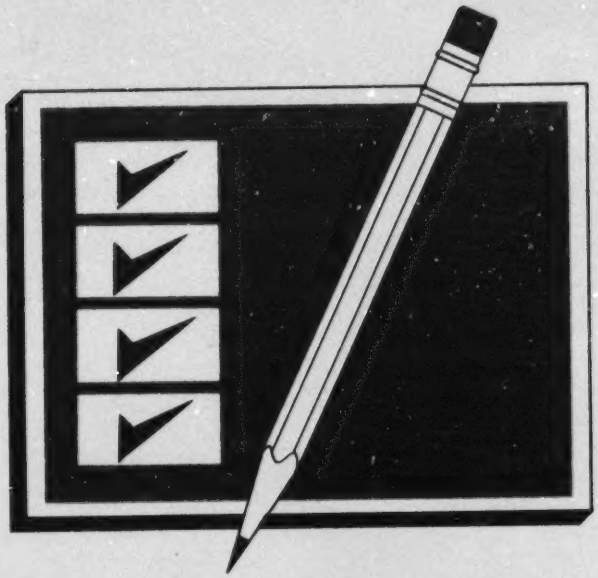
What about the teachers? Submitting to an interview with the Teacher Perceiver technique is a strictly voluntary option for teachers in the Reno district, but "they sign up in droves," according to Roth. "We have more teachers wanting it than we can handle." To be truly effective, he explains, the interview must be done on a one-to-one basis, and principals can probably interview no more than six to eight teachers in a semester.

Other districts using Teacher Perceiver Interviews: SRI's Muller says the interview process has been used successfully by a number of school districts, including all six administrative regions of the 220,000-student Houston (Tex.) Independent School District. Other districts: Norfolk, Va. (to train personnel officers); Lake Washington, Kirkland, Wash. (for staff development); Lincoln, Nebr. (hiring); Mesa, Ariz.; suburban Columbus, Ohio; Denver, Colo.; New Orleans, La.; St. Paul, Minn., archdiocese (administrators trained in each school); and Columbia, S.C.

For more information, contact Gale Muller, SRI Perceiver Academies, 2546 S. 48th St., Lincoln, Nebr. 68506.

CHAPTER II

Testing Teachers for Competency



It's time to do unto teachers what teachers do unto students: test them. That is the opinion of some parents, other citizens and legislators who have become disenchanted with classroom performance by some youngsters and their mentors.

One indication of the mood of the public showed up in the Fall 1979 release of the 11th annual Gallup survey of the public's attitude toward the public schools. One question in that survey asked: "In addition to meeting college requirements for a teacher's certificate, should those who want to become teachers also be required to pass a state board examination to prove their knowledge in the subject(s) they will teach before they are hired?" Eighty-five percent of those answering the question nationwide said yes. The same percentage gave an affirmative response to this question: "After they are hired, do you think teachers should be tested every few years to see if they are keeping up-to-date with developments in their fields?" (Incidentally, 85 percent of the respondents also said school administrators should be tested for up-to-date knowledge every few years.)

Actually, the questions in the Gallup poll did not set off the discussions of or movement toward teacher testing. Instead, many informed observers believe it is an outgrowth of the movement to require students to meet minimum requirements (generally in basic skills areas) before being passed from grade to grade or before receiving a high school diploma. One observer noted that student minimum competency requirements were, for the most part, a legislative solution to an educational problem. The same thing could happen again, although "more slowly," but this time the focus will be on teachers, he noted.

In many states, the process of testing teachers before granting initial certification is under way or under scrutiny by the state legislature, the state board of education or interested professional organizations. The National Teacher Examinations (NTE) are widely used for that purpose.

It is important to note that most of the activity concerns new or prospective teachers, and much of the concern centers on minimum competencies in basic skills areas.

Some school districts, on the other hand, are devising testing procedures for screening job applicants. Some others are interested in testing veteran teachers for the purpose of determining their competency.

Following is a roundup of teacher testing activities:

Georgia

The state of Georgia began a major overhaul of its teacher certification procedures starting in the mid-1970s. Under the new system, teacher certification is based on classroom performance and teacher effectiveness rather than on hours of education courses and number of years in the school district.

"In plain language," explains Georgia Governor George Busby, "the new system will mean that those going into the teaching profession will have to demonstrate that they have had proper training . . . and once trained . . . that they have what it takes to be effective teachers."

The new system is a product of cooperation among higher education institutions, the Georgia Teacher Education Council, professional organizations and the Georgia Department of Education. It requires prospective teachers, upon completing college, to pass an initial certification test in order to earn a "nonrenewable" certificate valid for three years. Once hired by a school district, beginning teachers are assessed periodically on the job as to performance on 20 competencies

validated as generic and essential for all teachers.

Neophyte teachers may attain a "renewable" (professional) certificate in one to three years of teaching depending on how quickly they can demonstrate the 20 essential competencies, says Lester M. Solomon of the Georgia Department of Education. In other words, Solomon notes, "the 'professional' certificate will be based on demonstrated on-the-job competency, not merely on experience or the attainment of a master's degree."

Florida

Florida's 1978 law requires candidates for a teaching job to pass a test of teaching and subject matter mastery and to complete a one-year internship before being awarded an "initial" teaching certificate. According to the Florida Department of Education, the test — a comprehensive written examination — will measure 23 general teaching skills such as ability to select instructional materials and to maintain classroom control.

Teaching candidates also will have to demonstrate knowledge of their particular content areas and the special teaching techniques required. All applicants for the "regular" certificate must demonstrate after July 1, 1981, satisfactory performance in a full year of teaching or in a year-long internship. (Under Florida law, the state may fund paid internships in the public schools for teacher education graduates.)

South Carolina

South Carolina, which has had its ups and downs with the National Teacher Examinations (NTE), will eventually make some changes in its certification requirements. A U.S. Supreme Court decision in 1978 upheld the state's use of NTE for certification and for setting salary levels of teachers, despite opponents' charges of racial bias in the testing. In 1979, the South Carolina legislature passed a bill setting up the Special Project in Teacher Certification. Under its provisions, an Educator Improvement Task Force is charged with developing, by July 1981, these instruments and programs: A South Carolina Teacher Examination for those areas not covered by NTE, instruments that local school districts could use to evaluate teachers during their probationary years of teaching, evaluation materials that colleges could use with teacher education students and training programs for evaluators of teacher education students and probationary teachers.

The South Carolina legislation also provides that a teacher candidate could be employed after graduation on a one-year provisional certificate by a school system and could become certificated if all requirements are met. A candidate who cannot complete the requirements during this initial year would have to seek employment in another school district and successfully meet the requirements. After certification, the teacher could be employed for a two-year probationary period, during which two evaluations would be conducted annually, with counseling and help provided to ensure teaching effectiveness. A teacher would receive a continuing contract after successfully completing the probationary experience.

Louisiana

A law passed in Louisiana in 1977 required the testing of teacher education majors, but it left the choice of test up to the state superintendent of public instruction. He selected the NTE. A battle then broke out between the superintendent and the Louisiana Association of Educators concerning the cutoff scores.

Teacher Testing: The Union View

How do the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) view the testing of teachers? The one-word answer to that question is this: unfavorably.

Some striking differences can be noted, however, in the views of the two unions. To illustrate: AFT went on record at its 1979 national convention opposing the use of teacher examinations for making administrative decisions related to retention, salary or tenure. However, AFT supported the use of exams "to qualify new teachers as part of a process to test their level of literacy, knowledge of subject matter and pedagogy." The resolution, however, urged that teachers have "significant involvement" in test review and selection.

Delegates to the 1979 NEA convention said tests such as the National Teacher Examinations "must not be used as a condition of employment or as a method of evaluating educators." Another resolution stated that "no test now in existence is satisfactory for use as a criterion for certification and licensing."

Critics Veto Minimum Competency Testing; Offer Suggestions

As the teacher testing movement gained momentum in late 1979, it acquired both supporters and detractors. The supporters are those who believe that testing offers a means to maintain teacher competency and teacher accountability. The detractors, on the other hand, see the movement as a narrow, poorly conceived attempt to counter media reports of instances of student inadequacy in the basic skills. They fear that the teacher testing movement will become simply an extension of the student minimum competency movement. To illustrate:

View #1:

David S. Seeley, director of the Public Education Association, New York City, told the Education Writers Association meeting in Washington, D.C., that teacher competency testing is "a bad idea." He says no adequate test exists to "predict who will make a good teacher." Even with an adequate test, Seeley points out, human judgment in selecting teachers and "very careful monitoring of performance" would be needed.

Seeley predicts that the testing movement will grow because "too many people have awakened to the fact that ignorance is dangerous, and too many students are reaching adulthood with dangerously low levels of education." He concluded: "Parents and the public will demand — and get — improved teacher performance."

What does Seeley suggest? An alliance between teachers and parents and between public schools interested in the improvement of education and professional groups interested in protecting professional interests. He recommends that these groups concentrate on four topics: better recruitment of candidates to enter teaching, better school principals, more help for the classroom teacher and sharing of responsibility for education.

View #2:

The Council for Basic Education (CBE), Washington, D.C., advises its members to "look closely" at [illegible] before getting involved in any testing. "[illegible]

[illegible] October 1979 [illegible] does not [illegible] competency [illegible] solve only a [illegible] competency [illegible] great impetus." A more positive purpose of competency testing, the statement suggests, is that of describing a person's fitness to be a teacher — in terms of professional qualifications."

View #3:

Phi Delta Kappan magazine concludes in a December 1979 editorial that "minimum competency testing is a hollow answer to judging the efficacy of teachers. It can only whittle away at the edges of the problem; it has no power to cure, because it treats symptoms rather than causes."

Phi Delta Kappan's conclusion:

"More and more, research in education is beginning to provide the answers we need to improve the quality of our teachers and our students. . . . The time for assurances of competence is at the beginning of the educative process, not simply as a belated quality check at the end. It is within our power as a professional community, for example, to redesign teacher training in a way that takes advantage of valuable research findings. It is within our power to change traditional reward systems so as to attract a higher quality of teachers. Rational planning based on solid research and clear goals can effect constructive change. Hastily conceived tests of minimum competence will only add to existing confusion."

Three Louisiana colleges reported in 1979 that one-half of their education students taking the NTE failed. At that time, the State Board of Education said it might consider lowering the minimums, but State Supt. Kelly Nix objected.

Arkansas; North Carolina; Virginia

In Arkansas, a teacher testing bill was passed by the Arkansas legislature in 1979. The legislation charges the State Board of Education with the administration of the NTE or a similar examination designed by the board for purposes of certification.

In North Carolina, hearings were held in early 1979 on plans for a program to test for teaching competencies and subject matter mastery as a major part of the certification process.

A Virginia law passed in 1979 requires that every teacher seeking initial certification after July 1, 1980, must take a professional teacher examination prescribed by the State Board of Education. The NTE was selected.

Dade County, Florida

The nation's fifth largest school district, the Dade County (Fla.) Public Schools, is witnessing one of the nation's most dramatic developments in teacher competency testing. It is an outgrowth of 1979 contract negotiations between the district administration, led by Supt. Johnny Jones, and the United Teachers of Dade, an AFT affiliate.

The new contract introduced testing of teachers on the job as part of the evaluation process.

The Dade County contract is a new approach to labor-management relations, explains Thomas A. Cerra, the district's assistant superintendent for legislation and employee relations. In an interview for this **Critical Issues Report**, Cerra pointed out that the timing was right to bargain away tenure in favor of a strong accountability provision. "Citizens, the business community and politicians were saying that they would give us money if we would show we're cleaning house and getting quality people to teach children and if we demonstrate some real steps toward accountability."

District administrators told union officials that any pay increases for teachers would require "substantive moves in the areas of accountability, specifically regarding competency testing and tenure," says Cerra. The final three-year contract included a 7 percent pay increase in the first two years and 9 percent in the third.

The Board of Education and the teacher union agreed to implement a diagnostic-prescriptive approach to improve teacher performance, using established teacher observation and evaluation instruments already developed by the school district.

As a first step, principals observe teacher performance in the classroom. Usually, says Cerra, the observations show approximately 80 percent of the teachers doing an excellent job and 20 percent not performing up to par. Following classroom observations, a principal would suggest to below-standard teachers remedies such as inservice eduction, help from department heads or assistant principals, or work at a university. If deficiencies remain uncorrected, a principal has the right to use "any kind of testing instrument" to determine what the teacher's problem may be, Cerra notes. If none of the procedures works and a teacher fails to improve, action would be taken that could lead to dismissal, the Dade County administrator adds.

Dade County's diagnostic-prescriptive approach to teacher competency — "married to testing for some" — is a fair professional way to deal with teacher behavior, Cerra asserts. He emphasizes that the system does not require "blanket testing, pass/fail" procedures for all teachers. Information gleaned from testing is specifically designed to help the below-standard teacher to improve.

How is the new system related to tenure? Cerra explains that tenure laws are among a group of Florida statutes that will cease to exist within a few years unless action is taken by the state legislature to extend or replace them. Cerra says his district will seek a change in the law to make permissive that section requiring that tenure be granted. Instead of statutory tenure, Cerra says, "we want the right under collective bargaining to enter into contracts with teacher unions providing substantial due process that should protect teachers as well as the old statutory tenure laws." He adds: "We want to couple this kind of contractual due process and just cause for dismissal with innovative approaches to observing, evaluating and, in some cases, testing teachers, to ensure a really competent staff."

Other Districts Using Tests

The Montgomery County (Md.) Public School District administers tests to candidates for posts as language instructors. Potential English teachers must score at least 80 on a grammar-oriented test.

The Prince Georges County (Md.) Public School District uses pre-employment tests in spelling and grammar that reportedly weed out approximately 20 percent of the applicants.

The Salem (Ore.) Public School District tests teacher and administrator applicants in English usage

skills. From now on, says Assistant Supt. S. Bart Simmons, "no certificated staff member will be hired in Salem without a passing grade on the test, and it isn't an easy one." Simmons adds: "I believe we must insist on competency in those we hire, because staff members should model correct English usage for students."

The Dallas (Tex.) Independent School District received embarrassing nationwide publicity in 1978 over the poor scores attained by many of its prospective and first-year teachers. The district continues to use the Wesman Personnel Classification Test — but only for the job applicants, not for on-the-job teachers. The district, however, is developing its own test, according to Rodney Davis of the district's information office, "because the Wesman is no longer secure. We have reports that it can be bought on any college campus." Davis notes that the new test being developed in Dallas will be only one of 11 criteria used to determine competency and ability of job candidates. Other criteria include college transcripts, recommendations from professors and a written essay.

Status Report: The National Teacher Examinations (NTE)

As the teacher testing movement gains momentum, pressures grow to require teachers to meet minimum standards. The idea is not exactly new. National Teacher Examinations (NTE), the most widely used tests for new teachers in the United States, were inaugurated by the American Council on Education in 1940. Administration of the exams passed to the Educational Testing Service (ETS) in the 1950s, where it remains today. In an interview for this **Critical Issues Report**, William Harris, ETS program director for the NTE, provided an update on the use of the exams.

The exams, Harris explains, fall into two categories: the "commons" portion and "areas" portions.

The commons portion is used, for example, to examine a prospective teacher's knowledge of general education and liberal arts through a battery of tests lasting 3 hours and 15 minutes.

The areas exams are two-hour tests of knowledge regarding specific subject matter, e.g., elementary education, Spanish, business education.

The exams, Harris points out, are used for three purposes: certification of teachers, selection of teachers at the district level and evaluation of teacher training programs. Five states (Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina and West Virginia) use the NTE to certify new teachers; 23 other states use them for various purposes. An example: to test the knowledge of on-the-job teachers who want to be certified to teach additional subject areas. Certification would be based on the test results rather than on the accumulation of course credits. Another use of NTE by certain states is for licensure of specialists in the areas of speech pathology and audiology.

In addition, a "sizable" number of districts around the country use the NTE as a means of selecting teachers for jobs.

Currently, 45 to 50 percent of new teachers — those who are graduating from teacher training institutions — take the NTE, Harris says. A decline in the number of teachers taking the exams was under way until 1978. Then, interest picked up. ETS started to receive more inquiries about the NTE following the release of the 11th annual Gallup survey in the fall of 1979, because it showed public support for the testing of teachers.

Harris cites other reasons for the increase in inquiries: public demands for more teacher accountability, legislative interest in teacher competency, and the fact that a federal district court found no misuse of the NTE in a well publicized South Carolina case. Harris says the decision made people feel "more secure" about using the NTE. As a result, he says, "some new states may be coming into the NTE."

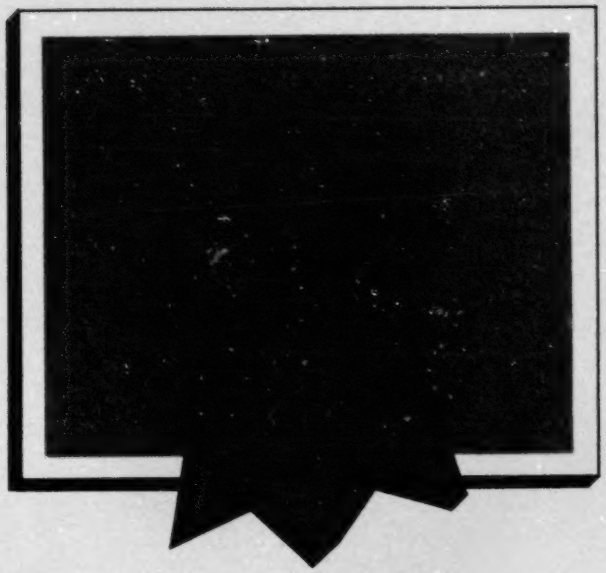
Some changes are ahead for the "commons" portion of the NTE, Harris predicts. An NTE policy council, made up of users of the tests, was established to review test items and to make suggestions for additions and deletions. Harris says "radical revisions" will be in place by 1982-83. One likely area of revision is communications, which could mean that the new test editions could require a writing sample and more emphasis on speaking and reading skills.

For more information, contact William Harris, Program Director, National Teacher Examinations, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J. 08541 (phone: 609/921-9000).

CHAPTER III

Recognition by the Top Brass

How To Reward Teachers for Good Teaching



The national Teacher-of-the-Year gets to go to Washington, D.C., shake the President's hand and bask in nationwide publicity. In addition, states select and honor their teachers-of-the-year in this well known annual competition. Beyond that, the "rewards" for outstanding teaching are not as plentiful as they could be.

The "rewards" don't have to be instant celebrity. Nor do they have to be money, although NEA's Roy Edelfelt asks: "What's wrong with money?"

Speaking in a broad sense, Edelfelt summarizes what teachers regard as rewards for good teaching: improved working conditions; more visible psychological support from the administration; learning to understand that other teachers are confronting the same problem; greater self-awareness and self-satisfaction; better materials and instructional supplies; parent and student satisfaction; salary increments; better job opportunities; gaining of new knowledge and improved competence; and the acknowledgement of one's efforts by one's peers.

Edelfelt also mentions some specific rewards that are highly prized by teachers:

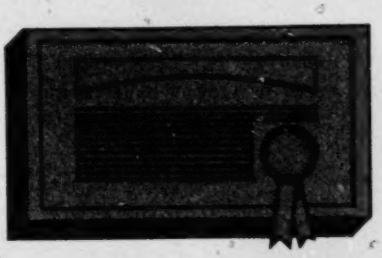
- More contact with other adults.
- More recognition from other adults.
- Invitations to testify on educational matters at school board meetings.
- Respect from their bosses.
- Classroom visits from school board members and the superintendent.

Edelfelt says he knows many superintendents who routinely visit every building in their district. "I've been in districts going around with the superintendent to four or five buildings in one day," he says, "and the superintendent could call every teacher by name and know what was going on in their classrooms. That kind of recognition by the top brass is a reward."

Edelfelt's contention is reinforced by author Eli Bower of the University of California at Berkeley. He tells of a new teacher who said, "There are days when I really would like someone to come to my room, watch me and say, 'Oh marvelous! I've never seen better teaching.' If someone could do that for me once every two weeks, it would make my two weeks."

Here's a sampling of how some schools and districts reward outstanding teachers:

Professional Recognition



Jeanette Alder, principal of Roosevelt School, Weehawken, N.J., proudly and regularly "shows off" the skills of excellent teachers in her school. Each year, she urges her teachers to participate in the New Jersey Education Association's "Good Ideas" conference on innovative teaching.

"One year," she says, "I may encourage my art teacher to take her bag of goodies to demonstrate the amazing things she concocts from scraps. Another year, I might suggest to our librarian that she present

what she was able to accomplish with a mini-grant." Participation is a reward for effective teaching, Alder notes.

The New Jersey principal cites other ways to give teachers needed recognition:

- Have "bring and brag" sessions at faculty meetings.
- Ask teachers to have their students put on a program for a PTA meeting.
- Invite a local newspaper to take a picture of teachers involved in a particularly successful classroom activity.

Another variation on the theme suggested by Alder comes from Associate Supt. Marvin Roth of the Washoe County School District, Reno, Nev. As part of an annual inservice session for approximately 150 administrators before school opens, Roth picks a panel of the district's "super teachers" to go onstage and be interviewed by the administrators about their special teaching talents. "It's high recognition for the teachers but, at the same time, we administrators learn a lot by studying the outstanding teachers," Roth says.

Encourage Further Excellence

Madeline Hunter, a well known professor of teacher education at UCLA, offers common sense suggestions for rewarding outstanding teachers. She says excellent teachers, far from being rewarded, are often the most neglected people in the school. "They never get to see the principal." Hunter's suggestion: Principals should continue to "open new avenues to excellent teachers" and to find ways to make other teachers aware of the "artistry" of their excellent peers. Hunter advises principals to ask such teachers: "Would you be willing to put that lesson on videotape so we can use it with some of the new teachers?" or "Would you take a student teacher?"

Another way to reward top teachers, Hunter suggests, is to "put a note in the teacher's mailbox, saying 'Great job you did today." Written notes of commendation, she says, are powerful reinforcers. Prof. Richard P. Manatt of Iowa State University concurs. "Every time you tell a teacher she's done a good job, the teacher starts thinking, 'How can I top myself next year?" Unfortunately, Manatt adds, administrators seem to fear that if they praise a teacher's work, she'll start "goofing off."

What About Money?

Marcelyn Hobbs, director of the exemplary Reading/English Rotation Project, Thomson, Ga., believes that professional upgrading is its own reward for the teacher aiming for excellence. Also rewarding, says Hobbs, is teachers' knowledge that they have the backing of their bosses.

Hobbs tells of one highly successful three-day inservice training session she gave for a Utah school district faculty. The teachers attending the session were amply rewarded for their efforts because they were excited about the course, the Georgia educator says. Nevertheless, the superintendent wanted to show his appreciation of the teachers' drive to excel. In closing the session, he casually remarked to the teachers, "Why don't you watch your mailboxes. In a few days there will be a little monetary reward." It wasn't much money — enough perhaps for the teacher to treat his or her spouse to a steak dinner. "It was very rewarding to the teachers," Hobbs says, "because it showed the superintendent's support."

Another view on rewarding excellence with money comes from Manatt of Iowa State U. He says it's sometimes hard to reward the productive teacher because he or she often is a member of a larger team. Therefore, he says, merit increments would have to be rewarded to a large number of people. Manatt illustrates his point with a story involving a San Diego County, Calif., district. Its administrators announced a 10 percent pay hike for everybody in any school in the district which achieved an increase of 10 percent in the learning gains of pupils. Almost every building got the pay hike, says Manatt. Why? People started sharing their expertise and resources much more than is usually the case.

Manatt has another suggestion regarding the awarding of merit pay. Few teachers get it, he says, and when they do, it tends to be $200 to $300. Manatt considers such increases "an insult," especially at a time "when merit differential rewards for administrators are increasingly popular and tend toward the $500 to $600 level."

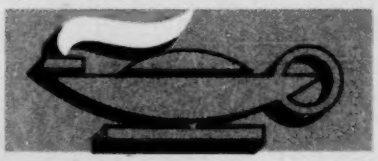
Manatt suggests that school boards ask their superintendents to name the productive teachers and principals in their districts. The board should study the teaching and administrative patterns of such individuals over three years and then issue rewards that are "really worthwhile" — possibly in the $4,000 to

$5,000 range, the Iowa professor says.

Aside from money, Manatt notes, every school building should have a system for recognizing an outstanding teacher, principal and central office administrator. By publicizing the winners, he says, recognition could become a reward that would be earned over and over. Recognition of achievements, the Iowa educator concludes, will have a greater effect on teachers than the rewarding of money.

Money is not as effective an incentive as personal rewards to the excellent teacher, say administrators of the Amherst-Pelham (Mass.) Regional Schools. But, it's not "a bad incentive," they conclude. Supt. Donald Frizzle explains how the district makes use of a merit award system for teachers. Faculty members nominate staff members for the awards based on these criteria: consistent demonstration of excellence in teaching children and contribution to the profession outside the classroom. The winners are selected by the school committee (school board) and the superintendent. Each winning teacher receives $800 and a fanfare of publicity. As many as 12 awards are given each year, Frizzle says.

Professional Trust



Marjorie Lieneck is chairman of the English Department, Hastings High School, Hastings-on-Hudson, N.Y. Several years ago, she and another teacher learned about an ESEA Title IV-C grant program involving reading. They felt it could benefit themselves and their colleagues.

When they told their superintendent about the program, he quickly found funds to send Lieneck and two principals to Syracuse to find out how to apply for a grant. "That kind of respect from the boss makes any teacher feel good," says Lieneck. She adds: "Teachers, like students, want to succeed, and it's the function of management to create a climate in which challenge is not a threat and success is not penalized."

The Best Reward of All

Many teachers will probably agree that the best reward of all is the knowledge that they can greatly influence students' lives. A case in point: Eigil Pedersen of McGill University, Montreal, studied 59 adults who attended the first grade 25 years earlier in a school located in a poor Montreal neighborhood.

In adulthood, an amazing number (64 percent) of the pupils of one outstanding first-grade teacher, "Miss A," had attained high social and economic status, had professional jobs, nice homes and good personal appearances. Not one was at the lowest socioeconomic level.

In contrast, only 29 percent of the adults who had attended the same school at the same time but with different first-grade teachers, had achieved such status. "Miss A gave her first-grade pupils a very solid foundation in basic skills," Pedersen says, "and she also gave them confidence in themselves by expecting them to do well."

CHAPTER IV

What Can Administrators Do?

Everybody from John Goodlad, dean of the UCLA Graduate School of Education, to newspaper columnist William Raspberry is telling U.S. principals they are the key to improved classroom instruction and teacher competency. Principals themselves agree. In separate national studies, 83 percent of a sampling of secondary school principals said their most important task was working with teachers on instruction, and 86 percent of elementary principals similarly declared that their primary responsibility was supervision and instructional improvement.

Yet the nagging question remains: Are most principals really instructional leaders? Is it possible for most of them to carry out this role effectively?

Probably not, says veteran educator George Redfern of Arlington, Va., a former principal and assistant superintendent who is often called the "father of evaluation." Redfern, formerly deputy executive director of AASA, worked for the association between 1966 and 1975. He now serves as a school district consultant on evaluation as well as an adviser to national education groups.

Today's principals must spend so much time managing their schools and coping with emergencies that they don't have enough time to work with teachers on improving instruction, Redfern said in an interview for this **Critical Issues Report.** The principal is loaded down with day-to-day managerial details and the task of implementing almost every new federal or state program. In addition, Redfern says, negotiated teacher contracts constrict the principal's freedom of action as a supervisor.

Another consideration: Redfern says he doesn't think most principals are hired on the basis of their potential as instructional leaders. To expect them to blossom forth as experts is "totally unrealistic," he adds.

Goodlad agrees. The principal should be an instructional leader, but "he hasn't been hired with that role in mind. He doesn't have the authority or budgetary discretion to carry it out; he has only the barest perception of the leadership required; and he has mighty few opportunities for the sustained inservice development that almost all principals require." Goodlad's remarks were made at the AASA 1979 summer convention held in Denver.

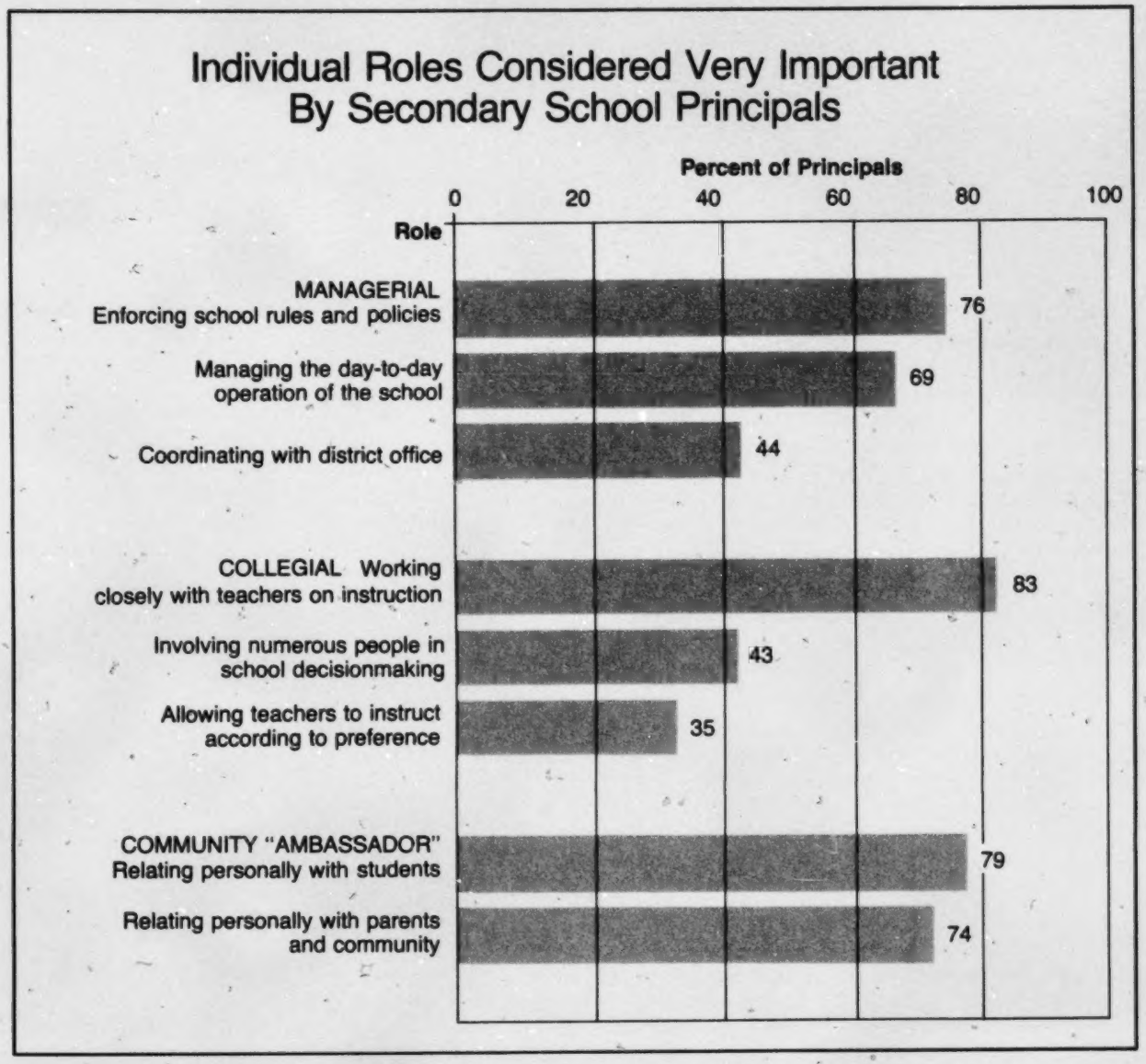
Administrator groups and state and local inservice experts, meeting at a Washington, D.C., workshop sponsored by the federal government, concurred that administrator training should be focused on the principal. Such training, the workshop participants added, must have the full support of superintendents and school boards. One representative at the workshop, Gary Gappert of Research for Better Schools, Inc., Philadelphia, noted: "Schools need a relatively new kind of leadership, but training for principals continues to emphasize managerial skills." What principals really need, Gappert added, is training that will equip them "with the intellectual and human relations skills necessary to manage improvement efforts in their schools."

What Principals Say

Principals themselves appear to be wondering about their effectiveness as instructional leaders. In a 1978 survey of 1,600 principals by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), the category mentioned most often as the one principals felt they were not handling well was "teacher behavior, that is, teacher competency."

A 1978 poll conducted by the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) revealed that 67 percent of 128 elementary principals felt their primary need in inservice education was to develop teacher evaluation skills. Fifty-three percent of the elementary principals said they needed curriculum development skills; 42 percent wanted to improve skills in working with faculty.

Another NAESP survey of 2,500 elementary principals showed that more than one-half (53 percent) felt their number one problem was "dismissing incompetent staff." Forty-four percent admitted to serious problems with teacher evaluation.



Source: *High School '77, A Survey of Public Secondary School Principals.* National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C. 20208; December 1978; 107 pp.

Evaluation Problems

A major component of teacher evaluation and improvement — classroom observation — gets short shrift in many schools. *High School '77,* a federally sponsored study, reported that 56 percent of 1,500 high school principals said they observed classrooms once a week or less. In other words, in a school with 47 teachers (the average number of teachers in schools surveyed), the principal would observe a teacher in action once a year. Even in larger schools with more staff members and presumably more people to do observations, the federal study found that principals observe teachers once a week or less, which means that even fewer teachers in these schools are observed in their teaching role.

Speculating on the reasons behind the high school findings, federal researchers pointed out in *High School '77* that most secondary teachers are relatively free to shut their doors and teach according to professional preferences. In fact, the study said, it may be considered "impractical" for principals to uncover teacher incompetence since "they are without power to do much about it — given teacher organization agreements and complex grievance procedures."

Evaluation consultant Richard Manatt of Iowa State University cites another problem. He says the typical principal/supervisor spends less than one-half hour per teacher per year in end-of-the-year post-evaluation conferences. (Such conferences are designed to provide the principal with an opportunity to coach and counsel a teacher after observing the teacher teach.) "The small amount of time many principals spend on this activity is like 'spitting in the wind' if you're trying to help teachers change their basic teaching techniques into something that might be more beneficial to student achievement," Manatt observes.

Redfern says the problem of inadequate evaluations is one that top management should solve. The first step, he says, would be for the superintendent to upgrade the districtwide system for evaluating principals and other administrators. The next step would be to require principals to do a more careful job of evaluating teachers.

What Can Principals Do?

Redfern offers some practical suggestions for principals who find themselves with little time to spend on instructional leadership, but who want to run a good school — one in which teachers are competent and students are achieving.

He suggests:

- Be selective about new teachers. Make sure the personnel director knows you want the very best, and that you know it's possible to get the best.
- Set up a good orientation program for teachers new to your school. Devote some time in the first six weeks to help newcomers settle in. Don't just throw them in to sink or swim.
- Assign teachers to spots where their strengths will enable them to function well. Don't give the last hired the worst job.
- Face the fact that you cannot be a full-time instructional leader. Tell veteran staff members they will have to do a great deal of self-assessment, that you will review their assessments, but there will be a minimum of one-to-one evaluations, and that any extra time you have will be spent with newcomers or those having trouble. Redfern says 85 to 90 percent of staff members are competent people who can work out ways to demonstrate their competency. "The principal doesn't have to be breathing down their necks," he says.
- Consider redeployment of staff to assist in instructional leadership duties. A high school principal can use department heads to carry out parts of the evaluation cycle: conferences, observations, post-conferences. Elementary principals can use grade-level chairpersons the same way,

Who's Responsible for Supervision And Instructional Improvement In Your School?

That question was asked of elementary school principals in both 1968 and 1978 by their professional organization, the National Association of Elementary School Principals. Here's how the principals answered:

	1968	1978
I have primary responsibility.	75.1%	86.2%
I am partly responsible.	20.6	13.0
I have little responsibility.	4.3	0.8

Source: *The Elementary School Principalship in 1978, A Research Study.* National Association of Elementary School Principals, Arlington, Va.; 1979; 118 pp.

having one teacher serve as a helping teacher on a part-time basis.

At some point, a principal may have to judge teaching performance to make a management decision (e.g., dismissal). Along the way, however, the appraisal function of developing or improving teaching performance can involve other staff persons, such as department heads, supervisors, coordinators, as well as teachers themselves, students and parents, Redfern says. The problem in too many schools and districts, he notes, is that the role of prospective helpers has not been well defined.

Redfern's conclusion: "Principals who want to be an instructional leader should figure out how to do it and invest some time or quit talking about it."

Building Morale

Redfern says principals can do many things to increase both teacher morale and competency, among them:

- Helping to establish a positive school climate.
- Creating rapport with parents.
- Being firm but fair about student discipline problems.
- Getting tools and supplies into the hands of the teachers so they can do the things they were hired to do.
- Seeing to it that teachers get the inservice training they need.

Combatting Teacher 'Burnout'

Today's principals have to be more alert to the dangers of teacher "burnout," according to Leanna Landsmann, editor of *Instructor Magazine*. Principals have to make sure they are helpful, rather than hazardous to their teachers' health.

Teachers responding to an *Instructor* survey overwhelmingly pinpointed the principal as the person who could do the most to alleviate their three major health concerns: stress and tension; physical environment within the school; and weight, diet and exercise. The magazine received more than 9,000 replies to the survey.

Some of the ways to improve working conditions, as noted by the teachers, fall under the principal's management sphere: making available supplies and resources, making sure the classroom is clean, the light bulbs don't flicker, the intercom works, the windows open and close, the shades go up and down and the wastebaskets are emptied.

An even larger percentage of the teachers responding to the survey, however, wanted principals to exercise instructional leadership to alleviate these causes of teacher burnout:

- Endless demands on teachers' time made by outsiders.
- Discipline problems.
- Lack of training for new programs such as mainstreaming handicapped children.
- Failure to involve teachers in decisions concerning them.
- Lack of communication among staff members.
- Poor school climate.

What Can Superintendents Do?

George Redfern sees a role for top administrators who want their principals to be instructional leaders. "If you want principals to be in the classroom observing teachers 35 to 40 percent of the time," he tells superintendents, "you're going to have to relieve them of some administrative duties."

Specifically, Redfern suggests that superintendents follow these steps:

- Require principals to write fewer reports and go to fewer meetings.
- Give principals more secretarial help.
- Stop to think "every time you pass another buck down to the building level." Ask yourself: "Could it be handled somewhere else?"
- Determine if principals are being given maximum assistance to handle "bookeeping" jobs.

Top management can't "create" time for principals, Redfern notes, but it might be possible to reorganize time and redefine duties.

Pay attention when staff members indicate a need for inservice training, Redfern advises. Superintendents should interpret as an early warning signal results of polls such as that conducted by NAESP in which principals pinpoint inservice education in teacher evaluation as a major need. "That's a clear clue to top management that staff development programs should be designed around that need," he says. "If that's what principals say they want, the district ought to do something about it."

Redfern advises further: If districts cannot provide such training on their own turf, they could allocate resources for principals to be trained at workshops, at

'Administrators Must Play Active Role'

Teacher Improvement Ideas

An "adroit" administrator can generate teachers' zeal for improvement in several ways: by giving them trips to visit a neighboring school system "where good things are happening"; by encouraging them to initiate a study to determine if there's something better they could be doing in a particular area of instruction; by bringing discussions of various effective approaches and programs into the school.

That advice comes from Elton Reid, director of the Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI), Salt Lake City. ECRI, developed by Reid with the help of federal funds, is now part of the National Diffusion Network. Reid estimates that approximately 14,000 teachers nationwide have received training in the project's methods of teaching reading since 1966.

Attitude is important: Reid emphasizes the importance of administrators' attitude when teachers indicate they want a new form of inservice training. Wise administrators, she says, should respond to such a request by saying: "If you teachers want it and need it, I'll find out how we can get it." Reid notes, moreover, that principals and administrators must continue to reinforce teachers after they have received inservice training. Reinforcement, she says, can take many forms: showing off the new methods or projects to parents; making sure teachers have all necessary resources and materials; and bringing in visitors from other schools.

Marcelyn Hobbs, director of the Reading/English Rotation Project, Thomson, Ga., agrees with Reid. Her inservice training project, like Reid's, has been approved by a federal panel of evaluation and education experts and is part of the National Diffusion Network. Hobbs says administrators must be committed to the idea that teachers need inservice, be willing to make services and resources available and be an "active participant" — along with teachers — in improvement efforts.

"Administrators' presence at strategic times," says Hobbs, "carries a tremendous amount of weight." She advises administrators to do follow-ups, not leaving improvement efforts and newly adopted programs "up in the air." Principals should visit classrooms, for example, to see how teachers are implementing the strategies they've learned, ask the teachers to demonstrate techniques for "still not what you're doing," and "praise [teachers] openly with the students." These informal visits should not be used by the principal as a means of testing the climate of the school and as a time to promote future inservice programs.

"Nagging" may help: Jeanette Alder, principal of Roosevelt High School, Wenonawhere, N.J., admits to "nagging constantly — pushing teachers to move ahead." Why? In Alder's opinion: "Teachers sometimes dig themselves a hole comfortable from rut."

Explaining her "nagging" techniques, Alder cites the case of one of her reading teachers who was getting a master's degree. Toward the end of that period, Alder said to the teacher, "Once you get your degree, you really ought to go on to learn something about reading disabilities." The teacher agreed. When she was approaching the end of that training, Alder told her, "You'll want to be involved in classroom work, so maybe you ought to learn something about the supervision of reading." The teacher did.

Providing material promotes growth: Another idea promoted by Jeanette Alder is to subscribe and to make available to teachers a wide variety of magazines touching on educational topics. In Alder's school, a magazine rack — containing everything from *Psychology Today* to *Elementary English* — is located in the corridor where teachers pass by. Alder describes this idea as "putting opportunities right in teachers' way so they can stumble over them."

colleges and universities, at seminars run by national organizations. "Not that one workshop will make the principal an expert," says Redfern, "but it could provide some insight and start the principal on the path to learning more."

Covering the costs to train principals: Redfern admits that costs can be a major inhibition for districts considering staff development activities. And, he notes, such activities are among the first to go when Proposition-13 fever sets in. However, there are programs in some states — North Carolina, for example — with built-in staff development components, including evaluation.

Another idea worth considering: Many superintendents have been successful in piggybacking staff development activities onto federally funded efforts.

The costs for inservice training do not have to be exorbitant, Redfern notes. He says districts often can hire a consultant "at a very modest amount," plus expenses.

Another idea: State department of education or university experts may be available to conduct training. "A superintendent can do quite a few things on a shoestring," Redfern maintains, "but he has to have the ingenuity and desire to go ahead and do what his principals say they want."

Case Studies:

Aiding and Developing Instructional Leaders

Some superintendents are taking positive action to underline their conviction that principals ought to be instructional leaders. Here are some examples:

Example No. 1: Administrators Spend Time in the Classroom

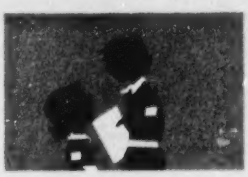
John H. Holcomb, superintendent of the Lamar (Colo.) Public Schools, tells his principals he expects them to be out of their offices 50 percent of the time. Where should they be? "Anywhere," he says, "just so they're not behind that desk counting the paper clips and chewing out the kids."

Holcomb also arranged with his school board to be out of his office 50 percent of the time. There are seven schools in his district, and he averages one school visit per day, spending perhaps one-half hour in one school and a whole morning in another. In addition, he spends two days per month as a "teacher's aide" in an elementary classroom so he can see children and teachers in their everyday working environment.

Example No. 2: Co-Principals Replace Assistant Principals

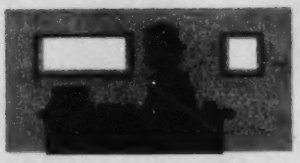
Edwin L. West Jr., superintendent of the High Point (N.C.) Public Schools, replaced "assistant principals" with "co-principals" in each high school. Enjoying the same pay and equal status, one principal is responsible for instructional leadership; the other takes on management functions full-time. Redfern cites two advantages to using the co-principal system: the cost is not very much greater than that for the principal/assistant principal system, and there's a psychological advantage. Certain responsibilities always appear to be regarded by teachers and perhaps even parents as the exclusive preserve of "the principal." In effect, then, two persons share these "exclusive" responsibilities in the High Point schools.

Example No. 3: Department Heads Become Instructional Specialists



Fred D. Williams, superintendent of the Fort Thomas (Ky.) City Schools, told his school board he wanted department heads to become instructional specialists who would work with teachers and help in evaluations. Consequently, the head of the math department works with math teachers about one-third of the time. The head of the English department follows a similar schedule in working with English teachers. The same pattern is followed by other department heads. An advantage of using this practice, Redfern says, is that department heads have credibility with and trust of the teachers in the sensitive area of evaluation. One caution: Department heads taking on this new role have to be oriented and trained to eliminate any "buddy-buddyism" toward those they will have to supervise.

Example No. 4: Instructional Specialists Assist Principals



The Mobile (Ala.) Public School District installed an instructional specialist in every elementary and high school to work full-time with teachers. Because of the district's size, the change is costing "lots of money," says Redfern. But, he adds, the school board made the decision as a means of improving instruction. Teachers in the district needed more help than their principals could possibly give. Now the district's principals are getting assistance never before available to them.

Example No. 5: Dual Training for Principals and Teachers

"It's bailed me out more than once with parents," says a California principal, referring to the training in diagnostic and prescriptive skills he received at the Professional Development and Program Improvement Center, Upland Elementary School District, San Bernardino County, Calif. The principal says the training in diagnostic and prescriptive skills enables him to explain their use to parents who complain that their child's schoolwork is either too hard or too easy.

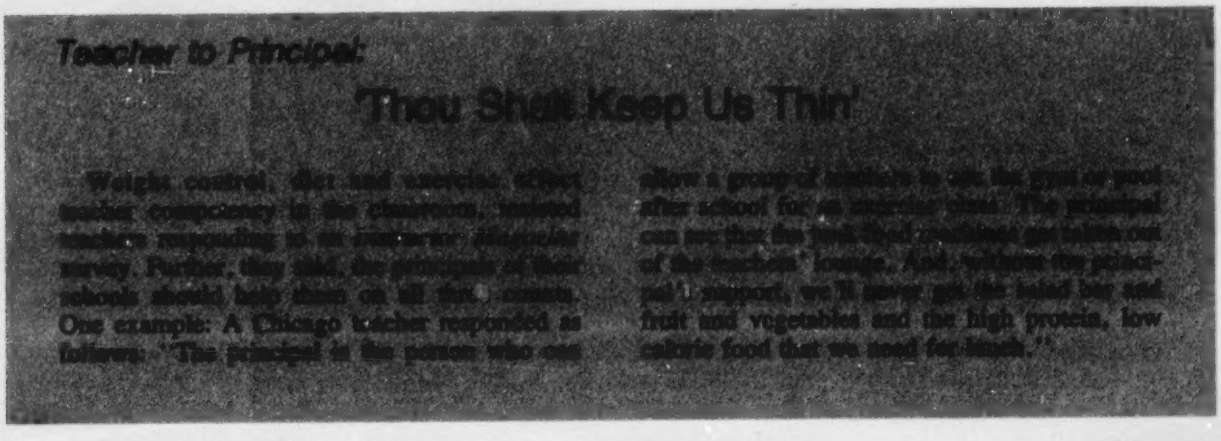
The Upland center is one of 16 similar centers in California, all of which give teachers "booster shots" of instructional skills training. At Upland, moreover, principals and other school staff are included in the same courses.

For teachers, training at Upland is two-pronged, explained Loren E. Sanchez, the district's assistant superintendent for instruction in an interview for this **Critical Issues Report.** "During the first phase, a group of teachers spends one week at the district center learning instructional skills, class management, use of materials and human relations. In the second phase of the training, which occurs throughout the year, principals check on the retrained teachers to assure that they are using what they have learned in the one-week class," Sanchez says.

When Upland initiated the teacher training program in 1974, all 13 principals and vice-principals in the district and three central office staffers joined in the training. To keep their skills honed, these administrators attend approximately 20 two-hour instructional meetings per year, sharing insights and learning more about skills such as clinical supervision, human relations and management leadership.

One idea that has worked out well, according to Sanchez, is having each principal bring a teacher along to the instructional meetings. "Our district does not have a lot of specialist help," Sanchez explains, "and principals are 'Lone Rangers' back at their schools. They need someone with whom to share ideas and get feedback." In addition, the teachers help the principals share information and insights from the meetings with the rest of the staff.

This "dynamic duo" approach to the instructional meetings, Sanchez says, has proved more powerful than he had envisioned. For one thing, he says, "it puts the principal a little bit on the spot and often, when people are on the spot, they tend to perform better." Sanchez cites another side benefit: "We're



developing a cadre of very sharp teachers. Should any principalships open up, there would be a number of top in-house candidates."

After every instructional meeting, the principals are assigned homework which might require them to do a class observation, paying special attention to certain teacher behaviors.

Upland principals are expected to conduct regular classroom observations, to analyze lessons and to give almost immediate feedback to teachers. To illustrate: If a principal notes during an observation that a teacher is not making good use of reinforcement techniques, the principal is expected to demonstrate, after class or after school, how the teacher could improve.

Another different twist at Upland: Evaluators from outside the district are used to observe principals before, during and after their initial training at the center. "We diagnose our staff just as we expect them to diagnose students," says the assistant superintendent. In addition, Sanchez sometimes observes a principal who is, in turn, observing a teacher in the classroom.

Are the principals gaining more confidence in their instructional leadership as a result of the training? Sanchez answers this way: "Five years ago, when we collected the formal evaluations of teachers from our principals, practically every teacher in the district was marked 'average' or 'above average.' Now," he says, "the forms indicate much more often that certain teachers 'need some help.' " This means that principals have a more realistic idea of what is going on in the classroom and that they are more careful with evaluations, according to Sanchez.

Another result of the program, says the Upland administrator, is that 15 teachers — "the kind who shouldn't be teaching kids in the classroom" — left the district of their own accord in three years. "We didn't have to go to court to get rid of them. When they saw what the district expects of principals and what principals expect of teachers, they decided to leave." The purpose of the program is to improve instruction and improve people's skills, not to get rid of "bad" teachers, the California administrator emphasizes.

The district, which provides released time during the day for teachers to take the training, has trained all of its own teachers, plus some from other districts.

Most teachers are excited over the program, Sanchez says, and "the principals feel very good about it. For the first time, they are operating an instructional program, not from the seat of their pants, but from a real knowledge base."

The district considers the program equally important for both teachers and principals. "If we left the principals out of it," says the Upland administrator, "the chances of its living on in the classroom would be slim."

Costs: The program costs about $400 to $500 per participant, which the district covers through use of state funds, ESEA Title I moneys, district general funds and special education funds.

For more information, contact Loren E. Sanchez, Professional Development and Program Improvement Center, Upland Elementary School District, 904 West 9th St., Upland, Calif. 91786.

Example No. 6: Evaluation for Administrators and Supervisors

The High Point (N.C.) Public Schools embarked in 1976 on a major goal: to upgrade the skills of administrative and supervisory personnel. At that time, an evaluation process for such personnel was set up by a district planning committee, with George Redfern acting as consultant. After more than three years' operation, Supt. Edwin L. West Jr. regards the process as the "single most important ingredient in the district's program of professional growth."

High Point's evaluation system is specially designed to clarify job content, motivate self-improvement, improve morale, ease communication and planning, and determine the dimensions of effectiveness or deficiency in performance. The system works, according to West, because individuals know what's expected of them and they take part in developing the objectives, the evaluation criteria and the action plan that will measure their performance.

Under the High Point system, the overall criteria for evaluation cover these areas of administrative and supervisory responsibility: instruction and curriculum, business and fiscal management, student services, personnel services and public relations. Individual job descriptions are used as the basis for evaluation.

The system gets under way when the principal (or other supervisor being evaluated) meets with the "primary" evaluator to analyze the principal's job description and to figure out how performance can be improved. Once the principal's needs are identified, the two work together to create specific objectives and a plan of action. It's up to the principal to carry out the action plan but, in the process, assistance may be obtained from the evaluator or other persons, including students, parents or teachers.

Sample Evaluation Form — High Point, N.C.

In the form below, High Point, N.C., Principal "Andrew Able" indicates how he will carry out his objective of developing a closer working relationship with parents. Note that the form indicates Able's own evaluation of his performance as well as that of his primary evaluator.

High Point (N.C.) Public Schools
Need Identification and Objective/Action Plan

Year: 1977-78

Evaluatee: Andrew Able Position: Principal, XYZ School

Primary Evaluator: James Adams Position: Superintendent of Schools

Directions: Using your job description, determine a need or area to emphasize during the coming year. Complete this worksheet. At the end of the year, complete Section D, Assessment of Results, with necessary comments.

A. Objective:

Develop a closer working relationship between parents and the school in order to meet the needs of students better.

B. Action Plan:

1. Hold conference with parents to discuss total school program.
2. Conduct coffee hours for parents to meet with teachers to discuss the progress of children.
3. Form committees of parents and school personnel to evaluate the total school program.
4. Include parents on a city-wide committee to develop programs that will affect all schools.

C. Evaluative Criteria:

(a) Will consider the objective achieved satisfactorily if 25% of parents (1) partipate in school activities and (2) contribute to school programs.
(b) Will consider the objective achieved successfully if student progress is increased.

D. Assessment of Results: (Check appropriate symbols)

Symbols: A — Achieved
PA — Partially Achieved
NA — Not Achieved
(Any objective assessed as NA must be explained below.)

	Evaluatee	Primary Evaluator
A		
PA	X	X
NA		

E. Comments: (Evaluatee)

Was a bit disappointed in the results achieved. Thought 25% participation was reasonable. I see some ways now, in retrospect, that we might have generated more parent participation. I will continue this objective next year.

Signatures:

Evaluatee: Andrew Able Date: April 15, 1978

Primary Evaluator: James Adams Date: April 15, 1978

Reviewer: — Date: —

If more space is needed for any of the above sections, use reverse side of worksheet.
Copies: Original: Central Office; 1st: Evaluatee; 2nd: Primary Evaluator

About midway in the process, the principal and the evaluator meet to check progress and to modify some aspects of the action plan, if needed.

As the school year ends, both principal and evaluator assess how well the principal achieved the objectives. The evaluator also judges the principal's overall performance in major administrative areas (e.g., instruction and curriculum, student services). Following completion of the assessments, the two hold a wrapup conference to discuss implications and to plan for the next year's cycle.

Who evaluates the evaluators? High Point's system works like this: One year, the superintendent evaluates high school principals while associate superintendents evaluate elementary school principals. The next year, it's turnabout.

When the superintendent is not serving as "primary" evaluator, he is a reviewer of evaluations. In addition, he handles evaluations for associate and assistant superintendents and the controller. Associate superintendents handle evaluations for most other supervisory personnel (e.g., directors of instruction, athletic, occupational education). Evaluations for such personnel as the food services director, the assistant superintendent for maintenance and the purchasing agents are handled by the controller.

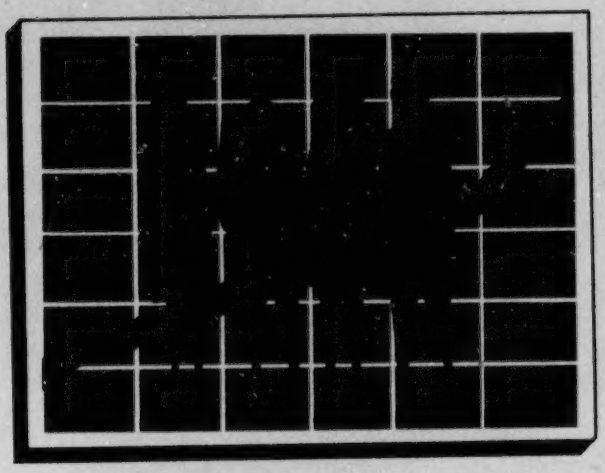
How does High Point use the data flowing out of the evaluation process? The major follow-up is an annual inservice program for principals. Approximately 40 percent of the program is spent on upgrading instructional skills, with the balance used to improve management performance.

Principals spend at least one day per month in training, which means they are away from their buildings 6 to 8 days each year. Inservice sessions on these days, planned in consultation with George Redfern, might include comprehensive planning, how to work with staff to meet inservice needs, teacher evaluation or working with the community. Another feature of High Point's inservice training for administrators is a 2½ day summer workshop which serves either as a wind-up for the past year's inservice training activities or as a kickoff for the following year's program.

Note: Other districts operating comprehensive evaluation systems for administrators and supervisors include: Andrews (Tex.) Independent School District; Fort Thomas (Ky.) City Schools; Orange County Public Schools, Orlando, Fla.; Oakland (Calif.) Unified School District; Naperville (Ill.) Community School District 203.

CHAPTER V

Evaluation To Improve Teachers



Evaluation has long been a controversial and ill-defined process in education. Traditionally, it has been viewed as a way to make personnel decisions, e.g., hiring and firing. "Evaluation is the heart of the teacher dismissal process," said an attorney in an interview for *Staff Dismissal: Problems and Solutions*, an earlier report in this AASA Critical Issues Series.

The other purpose of evaluation is to improve teachers and teaching.

When evaluation is mentioned as part of state statutes on teacher contract laws, says *Staff Dismissal*, the tendency is to tie it obliquely to the dismissal process. Several states recognize improvement efforts as an important part of the evaluation process; others mention them only as a due process requirement. "So, while state statutes mostly ignore the Catch-22 quality of improvement as a part of evaluation," the report says, "administrators have to grapple with it."

See *Staff Dismissal* for information on the use of evaluation for the purpose of making personnel decisions. This report concentrates on evaluation for the purpose of helping teachers improve their instructional effectiveness.

Outcomes of Evaluation

Evaluation expert George Redfern says the primary outcome in a good personnel evaluation program should be to stimulate, to upgrade and to better equip the person being evaluated to do a better job. Such a program, he notes, is conceived and developed on the premise that a school district has both "a content" and a discernible range of expectations for its staff members. Another assumption in a good program, Redfern adds, is that the individuals being evaluated, in cooperation with their evaluators, will identify broad areas of responsibility and will be able to identify specific areas of need to which specific objectives can be tied.

"The object is to be quite precise in seeking to bring about desired improvement in performance," Redfern says. "In addition, a well rounded evaluation not only indicates the extent to which objectives have been achieved but also provides a general assessment of overall effectiveness in each of the major areas of responsibility."

Why, How To Improve Evaluation

A good personnel evaluation program will yield dividends both to the individual and to the school system, Redfern says. He admits, however, that it may require time to understand the worth of a good program. "But the goal is worth the effort."

What would be the payoffs of improved evaluation? Redfern cites four outcomes:

1. A higher level of teacher performance.
2. Improved educational services for students.
3. A more accurate record of the status of performance of staff members — thus enabling the school system to give a better accounting of teachers and other personnel.
4. A greater commitment "to the importance of being evaluative-minded" in the performance of one's duties and responsibilities.

"Every individual is capable of making improvement to some degree," Redfern says. "The chances of that taking place are enhanced if there is a definite identification of what ought to be improved, a conscious effort made to achieve it and a systematic assessment of the results achieved."

Redfern sees the need for both general and specific improvements. His recommendations:

- A new orientation toward personnel evaluation is essential. It has to become a positive process. It

must serve able and effective teachers as well as meet the needs of the less successful.

- Personnel evaluation must focus more on *what the teacher achieves* and less on *how teaching is done or should be done*. "Results are more important than process in evaluation."
- Evaluation should be more closely tied to the instructional program and the goals and objectives of the school system.
- Personnel and program evaluation must be more closely integrated. They need not be separate entities. "To bring them closer together, however, will require a re-orientation both in precept and practice."
- Better models of personnel evaluation must be designed. They must have rationality, coherence and logical sequence. Evaluation procedures should fit the particular school system in terms of size, resources and structure. The model should emerge from the efforts of those who will be involved in its implementation rather than by copying a model from some other system. "Ideas can be borrowed, but unless the persons who will be affected by the program 'buy into it' and assume responsibility for its successful operation, the prognosis for success is lessened."
- Marginality or incompetence of teachers has to be faced up to and dealt with in a different and more intensive manner than evaluation of able teachers.
- All personnel must be evaluated. "Administrators and supervisors can be evaluated by the same process as that used for teachers. The difference lies in job definition."
- The evaluation process must be dynamic. "Update the procedures as necessary. Periodically evaluate the evaluation process and modify the procedures as required."

Description of an Evaluation System

Evaluation should "kick rocks out of teachers' path, not load them in teachers' knapsacks." That view comes from Richard P. Manatt, a professor at Iowa State University, Ames, and a school district consultant on evaluation.

Manatt agrees with Redfern that the primary purpose of evaluation should be to improve teacher effectiveness, not to weed out the unfit. He admits that such evaluation isn't easy for these reasons: union resistance to efforts to compare teacher performance, school board concerns about the cost, the general unpreparedness and reluctance of principals for the task of evaluation, and school administrators' apprehension about court challenges revolving around evaluation procedures.

Despite the obstacles, Manatt insists, school boards and administrators must proceed with the evaluation of teacher performance "because they need the data gathered in evaluations to perceive the difference between productive and unproductive teachers. If teachers are teaching competently, students should be learning well, and that's the way to make the taxpayers happy."

Manatt calls his system "Mutual Benefit Evaluation" because, he says, it benefits the school district, principals, teachers and children. Manatt's system covers elements of the entire teaching environment: Teacher Performance Evaluation (TPE), Administrator Performance Evaluation (APE) and program evaluation (i.e., goals and philosophy, curriculum, opportunities for staff development, instructional materials).

The entire evaluation operation, in Manatt's opinion, hinges on the teachers. "If you can't change teaching behavior, you can't change the delivery system of education to boys and girls."

The main ingredients of TPE are:

- Setting criteria and standards.
- Monitoring and measuring teacher performance.
- Setting job improvement targets.

Manatt says the installation of an evaluation system takes three years of preparation and some "upfront" money. In the first year, a task force of teachers, principals, parents and students should work together on the criteria. The second year calls for pilot-testing the program with teachers in one-third of the district's buildings and getting the bugs out. In the third year the plan is adopted throughout the district.

Setting Criteria

Manatt says the criteria established by a district as part of TPE must be *valid* (the criterion measures what it purports to measure); *reliable* (the criterion works every time it is used); and *legally discriminating* (the criterion enables the district to tell the difference between productive and unproductive teachers, and it provides the administration with management data that enable it to measure one teacher against another across grade level, department, school and district). Valid, reliable and legally discriminating criteria, Manatt notes, answer the question: How do you know a good teacher when you see one?

A district opting to choose its own criteria, Manatt notes, might find as many as 360 discreet items describing good teaching behavior (some researchers have identified 2,000). Once the criteria are identified, district administrators would ask a group of people (students, teachers, school board members, administrators and parents) to observe volunteer teachers at

work in the classroom. Their job would be to separate out and agree on teacher behaviors that seemed to promote good learning.

Such a system was used by the Naperville (Ill.) Public School District. Almost 1,300 student teachers, peer teachers, administrators and the volunteer teachers themselves observed and appraised the teaching of 69 elementary and secondary teachers. This group identified 94 items out of 360 as "sufficiently powerful" to separate high teacher performance from mediocre performance.

The 94 items were boiled down by Manatt's team at Iowa State University to 30 items in five general categories to illustrate what Manatt calls the whole pool of valid, reliable and discriminating items:

Productive Teaching Techniques

1. The teacher uses probing questions for understanding of concepts and relationships and for feedback to the teacher.
2. The teacher uses student ideas in instruction.
3. The teacher uses structuring comments, such as examples to serve as "advance organizers."
4. The teacher uses varied teaching strategies and materials that stimulate student learning.
5. The teacher explains things well, puts ideas across logically and in an orderly way.
6. The teacher provides opportunities for pupils to learn material on which they will later be tested.

Positive Interpersonal Relations

1. The teacher shows respect for pupils.
2. The teacher is tolerant of students whose ideas differ from his/hers.
3. The teacher uses supportive criticism rather than blame, shame or sarcasm.
4. The teacher is readily available to students.
5. The teacher is fair, impartial and objective in treatment of pupils.
6. The teacher provides opportunities for all pupils to experience success.

Organized/Structured Class Management

1. The teacher constantly monitors pupil progress and adjusts the pace accordingly.
2. The teacher presents material in a well organized fashion in order to use class time efficiently.
3. The teacher has well defined objectives for pupils and works toward them.
4. The teacher uses pupil assignments that are relevant and sufficient for in-depth learning.
5. The teacher is businesslike and task-oriented in behavior.
6. The teacher keeps the "difficulty level of instruction" appropriate for each individual.

Intellectual Stimulation

1. The teacher inspires students to seek more knowledge.
2. The teacher is an exciting, vibrant person.
3. The teacher is enthusiastic.
4. The teacher sustains pupil attention and response with activities appropriate to the various pupil levels.
5. The teacher makes classwork interesting.
6. The teacher and pupils share in the enjoyment of humorous situations.

Desirable Out-Of-Class Behavior

1. The teacher is a good team worker.
2. The teacher strives for improvement through positive participation in professional growth activities.
3. The teacher assumes responsibilities outside the classroom as they relate to school.
4. The teacher is committed to the primary goal of assisting pupil growth.
5. The teacher utilizes community resources in instruction.
6. The teacher effectively reports pupil progress to parents.

Establishing criteria of competency is not easy, Manatt warns, "because there is so much more research to be done." In the past 10 years, however, research has come up with "some pretty good" criteria for didactic learning (cognitive materials, reading, math, penmanship, spelling), and "there is a fairly good idea of how to appraise heuristic learning (discovery, inquiry)," the Iowa professor says. "We know," he says, "that kids must have a good grasp of cognitive learning before plunging into discovery." After all, the teacher can hardly allow math to be "discovered."

Setting Standards

The school board and administration must determine what teacher performance standards should be, in other words, how good is good enough? The laws of most states don't specify whether the teacher has to be excellent or mediocre, but the standards, Manatt says, should be high enough to enable comparisons between teachers, i.e., to distinguish superior and average teachers. The standards also should be realistic and humanly possible to reach.

In setting standards, Manatt suggests, consideration should be given to: prerequisites for the job at the time of hiring, educational level of associates being evaluated, experience level of associates being evaluated, subject matter being taught in comparison to associates and students' backgrounds.

Many tests of criteria suggest that school districts

should use an initial pilot year to establish a benchmark for teacher performance, the Iowa professor says. In the second year, norms and levels of expected performance can be set for individuals, departments, buildings and districts.

For legal purposes, Manatt recommends use of a three-point response from the evaluator: "superior performance," "meets district standard" and "unacceptable performance." He prefers this system to grades or scales or the five-point response pattern used by many school districts.

Monitoring And Measuring

With criteria and standards in place, monitoring and measuring can begin. These procedures have to be attuned to the ratio of evaluators (principals) to evaluatees (teachers), the skill of the evaluators and school district policies.

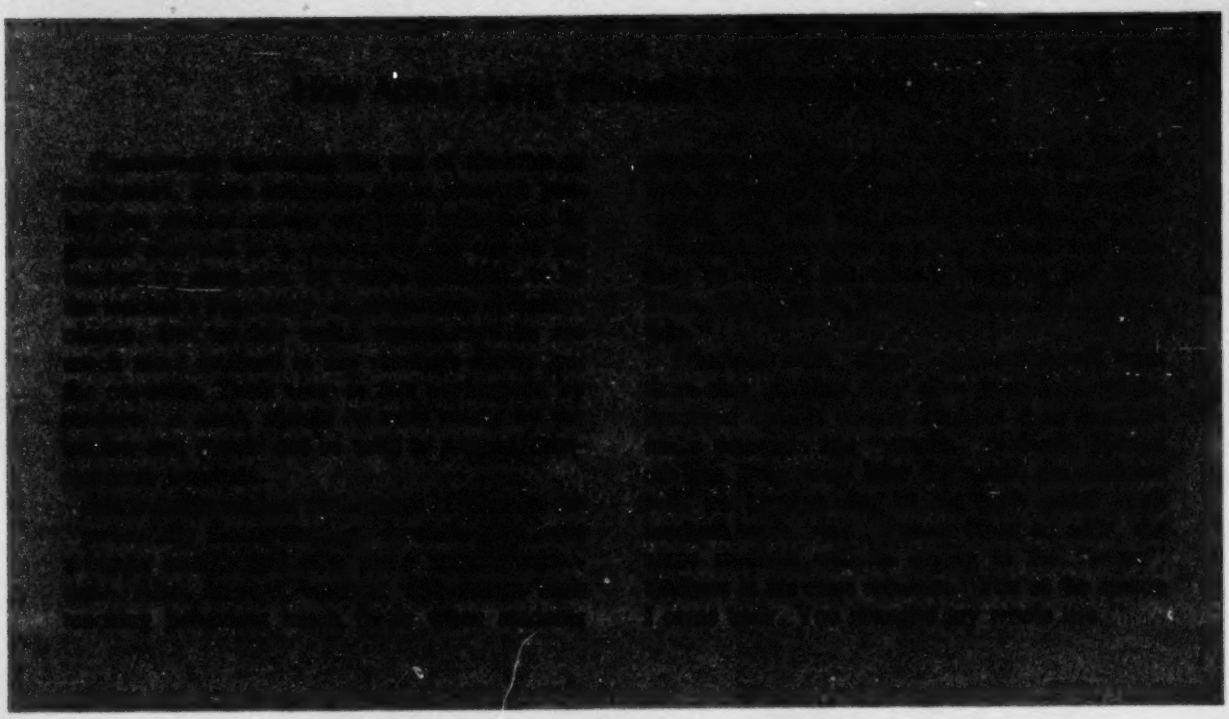
Procedural due process and sound practice, Manatt says, suggest at the very least:

- Self-evaluation by the teacher.
- Pre-observation conference(s).
- Classroom observations.
- Post-observation conferences.
- Agreement between evaluator and teacher on a plan of action (setting job improvement targets).
- The teacher must be given time to improve and help to improve. In addition, mutual monitoring of improvement by evaluator and evaluatee is necessary.

Self-evaluation by teachers: This is not a very good predictor of teacher gain, says Manatt, because outstanding teachers tend to underrate themselves; the not-so-good, out of fear, overrate themselves. Besides, the Iowa professor adds, teacher unions are doing everything they can to stop both self-evaluation and evaluation by peers (other teachers). Manatt advises administrators to use self-evaluation procedures if teachers are agreeable, because the process will familiarize teachers with the idea of evaluation, and it might save time for principals. Peer evaluation can be quite effective, he notes, and teachers will participate, but they want training and released time, both of which Manatt considers reasonable requests.

Pre-observation conference(s): This type of conference prepares both evaluator and evaluatee for classroom observation. Here are some of the questions that might be discussed:

- Where the class is in the course, in terms of unit, lesson, page in the text.
- The teaching/learning activities that will be observed.
- What students are supposed to get out of the lesson in terms of skills, attitude, knowledge.
- What methods will be used.



- Any specific teaching behaviors that the teacher would like to call to the attention of the evaluator.
- How the teacher will substantiate that students have learned the lesson.
- Any special characteristics of the students that should be noted.

In some school districts, such as the Montgomery County (Md.) Public Schools, a pre-observation conference between teacher and evaluator is permissible but not required. However, some teacher-training experts like UCLA's Madeline Hunter oppose such a conference. She maintains that the minute a principal or supervisor sits down with the teacher and a list of questions as to what should be seen in a classroom observation, the teacher is forced into a particular set of behaviors.

Manatt disagrees, noting that the pre-observation conference forestalls this common situation: the minute the teacher sees the supervisor entering the room, a switch is made to "all-purpose lesson plan No. 21," reserved specifically for such visits by the boss.

The pre-observation conference, Manatt continues, would not be used with every teacher every time because "it's too exhausting." Where it is used, he says, the teacher should be given the list of questions the supervisor wants answered days in advance, and both the teacher and the supervisor should agree upon a time for the classroom observation.

Classroom observation: This step is where the whole evaluation system could break down. Principals often are poorly prepared to handle teacher observation and evaluation, Manatt says. They know they are supposed to help teachers improve; however, they also are supposed to judge teacher performance. One task gets in the way of the other. Some principals solve the dilemma simply by overrating teachers, the Iowa State University professor says, and some principals "simply don't know good teaching when they see it." This is why a school or district initiating a teacher performance evaluation system should anticipate the question: Who's going to evaluate the evaluator? Manatt believes that districts never will have valid, reliable and discriminating teacher evaluation without administrator evaluation.

Evaluation experts generally agree that a prime need is for inservice training for principals in how to conduct classroom observations and evaluations. In addition, Manatt suggests that at least three administrators observe the teacher: the building principal and two other persons, such as the director of elementary education if an elementary teacher is being evaluated. If only one principal does the job, he notes, the evaluation could reflect the principal's hang-ups ("Why can't you teach the way I did back in Oskaloosa in the 1950s?").

When observing, Manatt advises the principal or other evaluator to keep a complete time diary, marking down everything that happens (e.g., 5 minutes to take attendance, 7 minutes to get rid of the chewing gum, 15 minutes "time on task").

Many district evaluation forms have space for a description of the activity observed. The evaluator should be sure to fill in all requested information and to make notes as requested on the form, instead of relying on memory. See the sample form from the West Des Moines (Iowa) Community Schools.

Post-observation conference: This type of meeting, which focuses on improving the teacher's performance, calls for the supervisor to serve as helper, not judge.

UCLA's Madeline Hunter describes five types of conferences that can follow classroom observation:

- In the A-type conference, the observer reviews the things that went well, recognizing that most teachers work intuitively, not knowing why they're doing what they do.
- In the B-type conference, which also is conducted on a very positive plane, the observer helps the teacher to answer this question: If the particular strategy didn't work in the lesson, what else might be done? Everybody gets in a rut, Hunter says. Asking this question will help the teacher develop a repertoire of alternatives. Hunter recognizes that principals require inservice training to be able to conduct the "helpful" type of conferences. Teachers resent administrators who cannot generate alternatives, she says.
- In the C-type conference, the teacher identifies what didn't work. Hunter points out that in this type of conference, the observer does not introduce a single negative note; instead, it is the teacher who expresses dissatisfaction.
- The D-type conference is the only "negative" one in the group. Yet, says the UCLA educator, it is the one most people think of — and fear — when evaluation procedures are mentioned. In this type of conference, the observer brings to the teacher's attention something negative about the classroom lesson that the teacher did not notice. "Teachers in the heat of teaching can't see everything," Hunter says, and that's the major value of having observers. "The battle looks very different when you're at the top of the hill with binoculars than it does at the bottom where the shrapnel's flying." Actually, Hunter notes, the D-type conference may not have to be used very often. It

Redfern Gives Tips on Conducting Culminating Conferences

Evaluation is a never-ending process — one that requires attention and good communication throughout the year. Evaluation experts note particularly the significance of the "culminating" or post-observation conference, the one that sums up the evaluation effort. Stated simply, what they recommend is the use of great care. How the evaluator or supervisor conducts the culminating conference is as important as how the supervisory function is performed throughout the evaluation cycle.

Here are George Redfern's specific recommendations on how to conduct effective culminating conferences:

No Surprises

Culminating conferences will likely be difficult if surprises emerge in the conference. For example, if the evaluator introduces "new information" in the conference, and this is something that is detrimental or negative, the evaluatee normally goes on the defensive. "Therefore, a sound principle is 'don't spring surprises' in the conference."

Sensitivity

The discussion of effectiveness in performance (both plus and minus) is a sensitive matter. Recognizing this fact and being mindful of it all during the conference is a must if both parties are to receive the greatest good from the conference.

Focus on Results

The accent should be placed on *what* happened during the year. Don't dwell to an inordinate degree on subjective and, to a large extent, unverifiable assessments.

Praise and Criticism

Both praise and criticism will surface in the culminating conference. Using both judiciously is of great importance. Praise realistically used can be a motivator; criticism unwisely applied will likely serve as a demotivator.

Logistics

The time and place of culminating conferences are matters for local determination. The important thing is to insure that the conference will be successful for both parties. This means a convenient time, a comfortable setting and a conducive atmosphere.

Give and Take

Exchanges between the evaluator and the evaluatee should be cordial and candid. Neither party should monopolize the conversation. Two-way participation implies give and take with as much avoidance as possible of a "boss-employee" posture.

Talking and Listening

"A wise evaluator learns to listen more than talk." In consultation, it is a wise principle to draw the other person out. If at all possible, get the evaluatee to do much of the talking, with the evaluator responding, commenting and supplementing the former's viewpoints.

Keeping Emotions Under Control

If the year's work has gone badly, emotionality may dominate the conference. The evaluatee probably will be defensive. The evaluator may be tempted to "lay it on the line." The situation can deteriorate into a heated exchange of accusations and denials. Then the conference becomes an emotional battleground. "Nothing good can come from this type of conference. Though difficult, it is always wise to keep cool and avoid explosive interchanges."

Flexibility

The best of plans can go awry. While good preparation is a must and usually assures a productive conference, unforeseen difficulties can arise which may turn things around and put the conference in some jeopardy. This means that the evaluator needs to be flexible. Changing directions and alternating plans on the spot sometimes gets things back on track.

Corrective Actions

Evaluators should be prepared to suggest ways the evaluatee may correct deficiencies if these are matters of concern in the conference. The object of evaluation is to improve performance where it is needed. Therefore, evaluators have a dual responsibility: to be able to assess and to be able to offer specific suggestions to enable the evaluatee to engage in corrective actions.

Pin Down Understandings

As the culminating conference progresses, certain understandings will evolve. Avoid the temptation to rely entirely upon oral understanding, especially if these involve commitments upon either party to carry out certain follow-up activities. The understandings should be put in writing so that each party may have a copy.

Accentuate the Positive

Most evaluatees will have been successful during the year; therefore, it will be rather easy to stress positive things during the conference. But

even where personal feelings are involved, an effort should be made by the evaluator to "counteract" [illegible] the evaluatee.

A third party may participate in the conference, Redfern adds, if differences are anticipated due to a lack of successful accomplishments during the year. "This person might be someone who is in a position to contribute helpful suggestions and who may have had a contributing role in the evaluation process." Usually, Redfern advises, both the evaluatee and the evaluator should be agreeable to the involvement of a third party.

In certain circumstances, the evaluatee may request and be granted permission to have an "advocate" present in the conference. "This may cause the evaluator to want to have a colleague present," Redfern says. He adds, however, that four-way conferences probably will be rare. "Generally, they formalize interactions and tend to generate more adversary feelings and reactions than collaborative relationships." Such conferences are likely when the evaluatee's performance has been assessed as unsatisfactory and some kind of serious personnel action is being considered.

Evaluation of Culminating Conferences

Redfern advocates the practice of evaluating the effectiveness of culminating conferences. Such an evaluation can be done in a variety of ways.

One example: Evaluatees may be asked to fill out (on a voluntary basis) an opinionnaire. It could be used by the evaluator to determine how well evaluatees receive the culminating conference.

Redfern suggests that the following list of questions could be used to construct an opinionnaire:

1. Which of the following most accurately represented your feelings about the culminating conference before it was held?
   a. Felt apprehensive about it.
   b. Wondered what it would be like.
   c. Had no particular feeling one way or another.
   d. Had a pretty good idea what it would be like.
   e. Had no apprehension about it.

[illegible]

3. [illegible]
   ____Yes
   ____[illegible]
4. [illegible]
   ____Yes ____No ____Not sure
   ____No opinion
5. [illegible]
   ____Yes ____No ____Somewhat
   ____No opinion
6. [illegible]
   ____Yes ____No ____Partially
   ____No opinion
7. [illegible]
   ____Yes ____No
   ____Reasonably well ____No opinion
8. Did either person "play games" with the other?
   ____Yes ____No ____Sometimes
   ____No opinion
9. Was criticism given constructively?
   ____Yes ____No ____Somewhat
   ____No opinion
10. Was praise given sincerely and on the basis of meritorious performance rather than as a "cosmetic tactic" to make the evaluatee feel good?
    ____Yes ____No
    ____To Some Degree ____No sure
11. Did you feel "put down" during the conference?
    ____Yes ____No
    ____To Some Degree ____No opinion
12. Were the main points made during the conference summarized?
    ____Yes ____No ____Partially

Note: Redfern says the questions above are only suggestive and that districts probably will want to come up with their own list and format.

is primarily used, she says, for the small number of teachers "who have retired on the job."

- The E-type conference, the UCLA educator reports, is for excellent teachers — the ones who are neglected. She contends that contrary to the views of many administrators, excellent teachers have to be "stretched." Otherwise, "they are not going to be great very long; they are going to atrophy."

Setting Job Improvement Targets

The first things a teacher wants to know after being observed are: "How did I do? What do you think?". The next questions are: "What would you suggest? What could I do better?"

That's where job improvement targets — the "action" ingredient in teacher evaluation — should come in, Manatt says. The target states a specific objective the teacher will try to reach, sets a time limit for reaching it and prescribes measurable ways to determine whether or not it has been reached. The whole idea is to pinpoint what the teacher will work toward in the coming months to improve teaching productivity.

The criteria which underlie the system advocated by Manatt identify generalized teacher-improvement goals, but they are much too broad. For example, take this criterion: "The teacher constantly monitors pupil progress and adjusts the pace accordingly." Rewriting that criterion as a job improvement target might result in the following:

Teacher's objective: Better use of diagnostic tests.

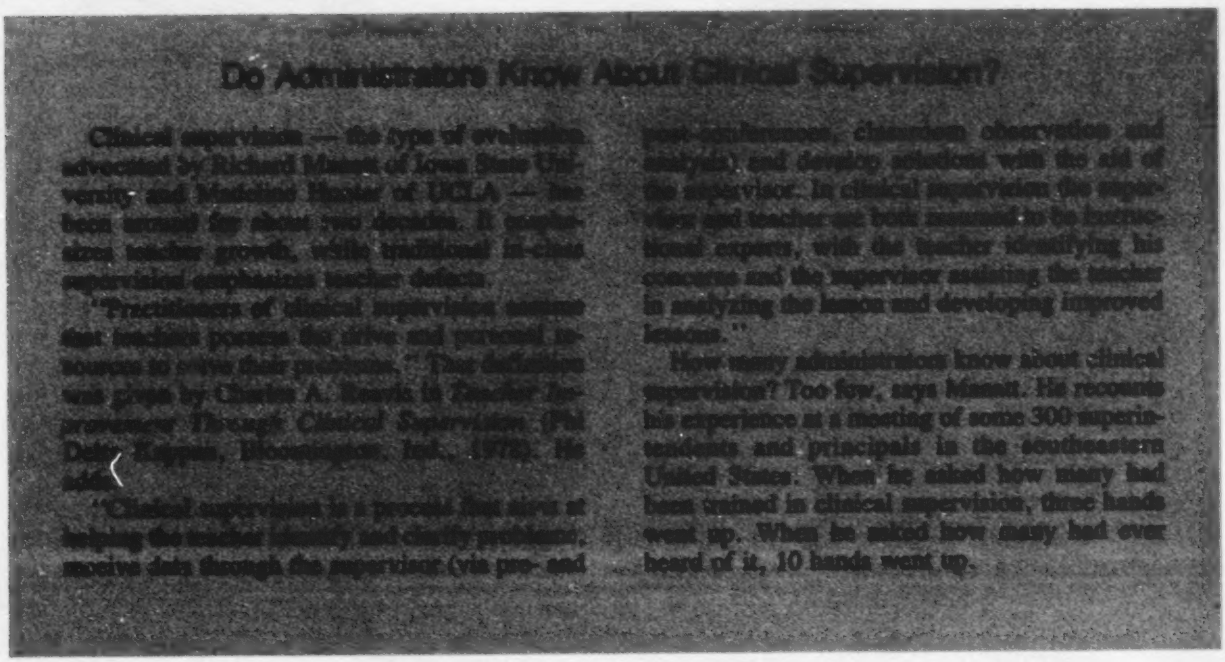
Job improvement target: Given the results of diagnostic tests, the teacher will work with every child every day for two weeks, concentrating on the area needing attention. Success will be evident by improvement in testing at the end of the two-week period.

Job improvement targets, Manatt points out, do not have to be sophisticated — just measurable. They should "stretch" the teacher. Principals should work with teachers to set three to five "good" targets per year, the Iowa professor recommends.

Once job targets are set, the principal and the teacher should work out a plan of action to help the teacher reach them. Among the questions to be answered: How much coaching and counseling can be provided by the principal, curriculum specialists, others on the staff? What would be helpful — in-service education, observing colleagues on the staff, visits to a nearby school?

At the end of the time period specified in the job target, evaluation again occurs, by the principal or other evaluator and perhaps a self-evaluation by the teacher. Next come post-evaluation conferences and systematic follow-up. Then the evaluation cycle starts over again.

Note: Part or all of the evaluation system Manatt advocates is being used by the Eldora (Iowa) Community Schools; Manning (Iowa) Public Schools; Naperville (Ill.) Community Schools, District 203; West Des Moines (Iowa) Community Schools; and Mt. Prospect (Ill.) Public Schools.



Do Administrators Know About Clinical Supervision?

Clinical supervision — the type of evaluation advocated by Richard Manatt of Iowa State University and Madeline Hunter of UCLA — has been around for about two decades. It personalizes teacher growth, while traditional fit-class supervision emphasizes teacher deficits.

"Practitioners of clinical supervision assume that teachers possess the drive and personal resources to grow from experience." This definition was given by Charles A. Reavis in *Teacher Improvement Through Clinical Supervision* (Phi Delta Kappa, Bloomington, Ind., 1978). He added:

"Clinical supervision is a process that aims at helping the teacher identify and clarify problems, receive data through the supervisor (via pre- and post-conferences, classroom observation and analysis) and develop solutions with the aid of the supervisor. In clinical supervision the supervisor and teacher are both assumed to be instructional experts, with the teacher identifying his concerns and the supervisor assisting the teacher in analyzing the lesson and developing improved lessons."

How many administrators know about clinical supervision? Too few, says Manatt. He recounts his experience at a meeting of some 300 superintendents and principals in the southeastern United States. When he asked how many had been trained in clinical supervision, three hands went up. When he asked how many had ever heard of it, 10 hands went up.

See explanation on page 39 on the use of this form by the West Des Moines schools.

OBSERVATION GUIDE
WEST DES MOINES TEACHER PERFORMANCE

(Teacher's Name) _____ (Date) _____

(Class Observed) _____

OBSERVER/EVALUATOR: _____

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY OBSERVED

Check one or more comments for each item.	DEGREE OF COMPETENCY EXHIBITED*				
	Optimum	Average	Not shown	Seek more information	Notes
(1) Teaching toward perceivable objectives. Teaching focused on a particular learning target.					
(2) Objective(s) appropriate for learners — not already attained or too difficult.					
(3) Was progress toward objective(s) made? If objective(s) switched in period, was change for valid reasons?					

*Adapted from Madeline Hunter, Professor of Education, UCLA, with permission, 1975.

	DEGREE OF COMPETENCY EXHIBITED				
	Optimum	Average	Not shown	Seek more information	Notes
(4) Teacher's behavior facilitated learning.					
(5) Teacher minimized interference with learning.					
(6) Supporting materials and media well prepared/chosen.					
(7) Evaluation activities effective.					
(8) Classroom environment created which is conducive to learning.					
(9) Provides a variety of learning modes.					
(10) Appropriate applications of principles of learning.					

(11) What were the best performance areas?

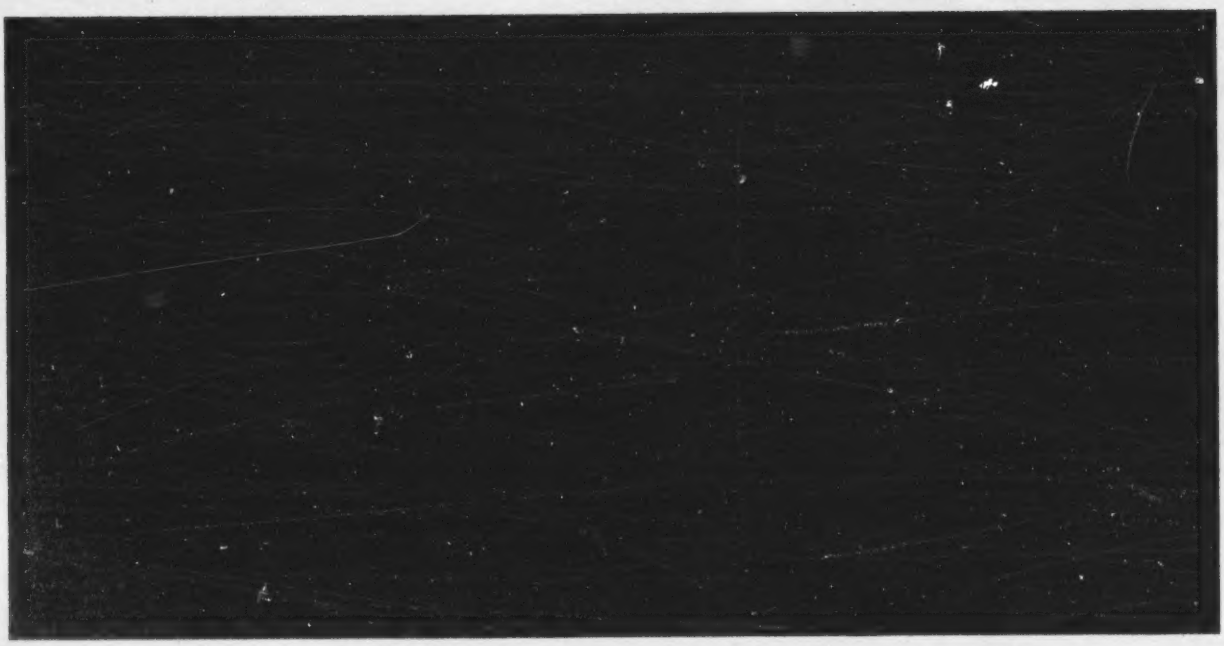
(Check one or more)

( ) Course content selected
( ) Objectives
( ) Methods
( ) Student-student interaction
( ) Student-teacher interaction
( ) Student independent study
( ) Other: _____

(12) What were the performance areas needing improvement?

(Check one or more)

( ) Course content selected
( ) Objectives
( ) Methods
( ) Student-student interaction
( ) Student-teacher interaction
( ) Student independent study
( ) Other: _____



How To Tell a Good Evaluation System

One of the best list of questions for determining the components of an effective evaluation system comes from the National Education Association (NEA), Manatt says.

Here is NEA's list of questions:

1. Does the evaluation system focus on the entire range of factors which affect the quality of teaching and learning, not only on the teacher? These factors include working conditions, program provisions and other school personnel.
2. Is the purpose of the evaluation system to improve the quality of teaching and learning? Is it conducted in relation to goals and objectives of the school district?
3. Was the evaluation system cooperatively developed by representatives from all of the groups to be evaluated?
4. Is it carried out as a cooperative activity designed to establish rapport and communication between evaluators and evaluatees?
5. Does the evaluation system help evaluatees identify the scope of their duties and prerogatives and to clarify the relationship of their personal and professional objectives to those of the school district?
6. Does the evaluation system include self-assessment designed to motivate evaluatees to improve? Is the system diagnostic rather than judgmental, thus defining the dimensions for in-service experiences?
7. Does the evaluation system establish in writing clear "ground rules" and follow-up procedures for both evaluatees and evaluators?
8. Does the evaluation system provide that adequate records be kept of all phases of the process? Is it accompanied by comprehensive, contractual due process procedures?
9. Does the evaluation system encourage experimentation, creativity and flexibility on the part of evaluatees, rather than conformity to someone else's conception of what constitutes "good performance"?
10. Does the evaluation system provide for periodic assessment and revision?
11. Does the evaluation system provide for training of all concerned before evaluation begins?
12. Is the evaluation system realistic in terms of time and funds for implementation?

Union Views Tougher Evaluation Requirements

What would be the view of a teacher union toward new, stiffer teacher evaluation requirements? Would it ask its members to cooperate? Would it give school districts a chance to work out problems?

A case in point is the reaction of the New Jersey Education Association (NJEA) to new regulations gov-

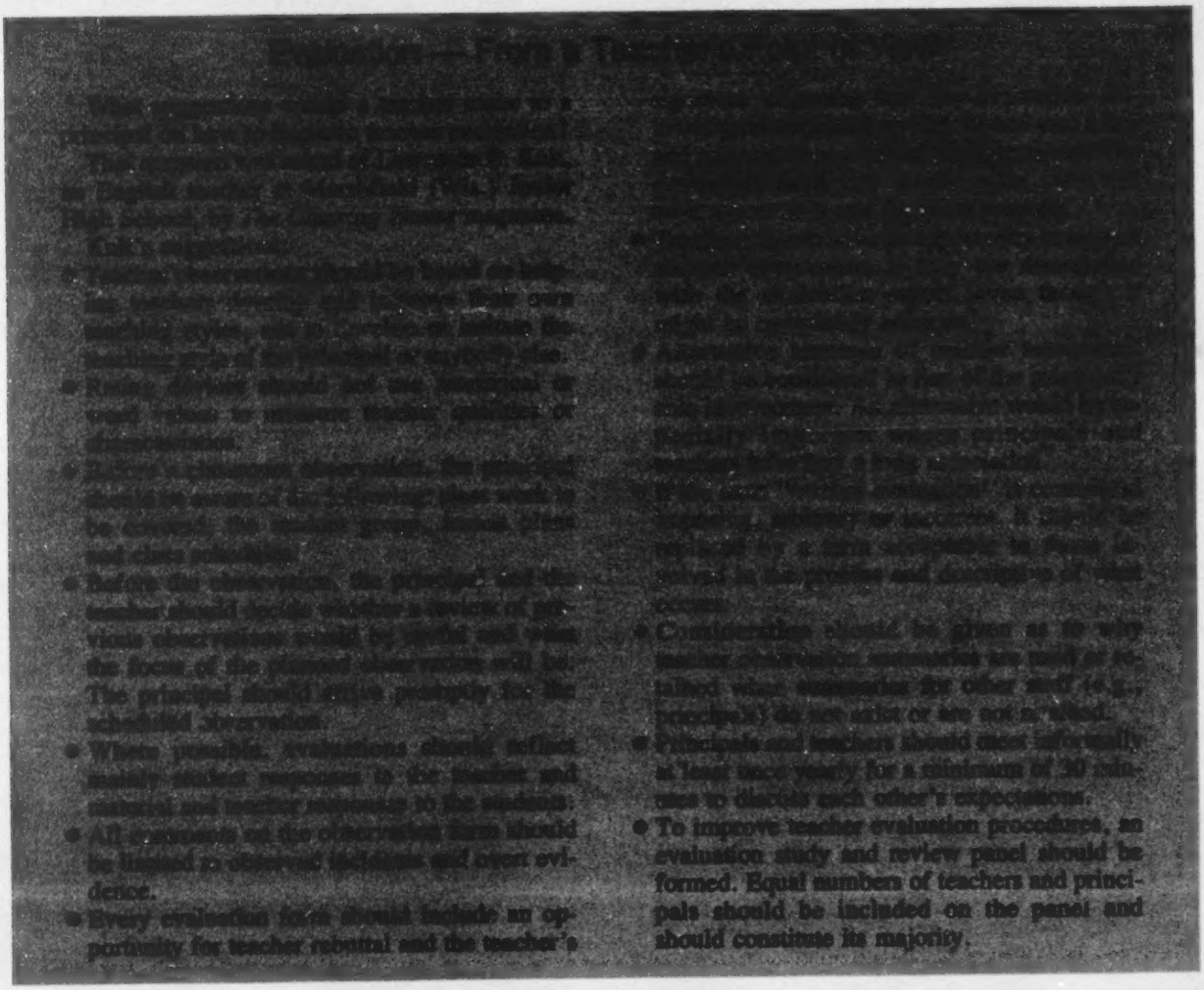
erning the evaluation of tenured teachers effective in the 1979-80 school year. The regulations, passed by the New Jersey State Board of Education, were challenged in court by the NJEA. In the meantime, it issued a two-word warning to members: Be prepared.

NJEA cautioned teacher members in the October 1979 *NJEA Review* to "not take any evaluation lightly" and to immediately contact local, regional, state or national union representatives "if you believe any part of your evaluation was performed improperly, was unfair or may be used in action against you."

Although the NJEA admits that "evaluation of tenured teaching staff has been carried out for many years without major problems in many districts," it adds that "in some districts the attitude of the management is to use the evaluation process for punitive purposes."

If that happens, the NJEA magazine states, teacher members should consider following these suggestions in the required post-observation conferences with their supervisors:

- "Make sure the conference does not take up time which you need and have been guaranteed for preparation, lunch or other personal and professional activities outside the contracted school day.
- "If administrators other than the evaluator are present at the conference and the situation is threatening to you, do not volunteer information until you have the chance to seek association representation.
- "Allow the evaluator to do the talking.
- "Take notes and respond to questions only when necessary.
- "Seek clarification and elaboration of the evaluation/observation material. Request specific examples.
- "Insist that commendations appear on the record. They may be valuable in the future, especially if your evaluator ever changes.



- "For reference, bring to the conference notes and other materials which may correspond to specific observations being discussed.
- "Point out any constraints, i.e., lack of material, equipment, time, resources, learning environment, student problems.
- "Make sure known inaccuracies are corrected and initialed on the report at the conference.
- "Let the supervisor offer any suggestions for improvement. Ask for demonstrations in the classroom, where applicable.
- "Do not reject recommendations written by the evaluator for a post-observation or annual summary conference. These may be used as a focus for rebuttal statements or other action later.
- "Focus the conference on the purposes of observation/evaluation cited by the State Board in the regulations: to promote professional excellence, improve the skills of teaching staff members, improve student learning and growth and provide a basis for the review of performance."

What can administrators do to counter problems? Follow the union's advice: Be prepared.

Case Study: Montgomery County (Md.) Public Schools

The elaborate teacher evaluation system used by the Montgomery County (Md.) Public Schools focuses on one primary goal: helping teachers improve their effectiveness. Does it work? Yes, says Jess R. Graham Jr., director of salary administration, certification and records in the district's personnel services department. "From the feedback I get," Graham said in an interview for this **Critical Issues Report,** "it is working quite well."

The evaluation system was designed by a task force on professional evaluation in 1972. It was developed and tested by pilot schools over the next two years. The entire district started to use it in 1974, and it was revised in 1978. Now, says Graham, both the teachers union and the district administration are satisfied enough with the way it's working "not to want to open up the can of worms" revision might entail.

The objectives of the evaluation system include: to communicate with teachers about their general performance on the more specific aspects of their work; to establish goals for teachers' improvement or for emphasis; to recommend probationary teachers for tenure, reappointment or nonrenewal of contract; to recommend tenured teachers for continued status, dismissal or classification of certificates such as Class II (less than acceptable behavior); and to provide information helpful in selecting teachers for promotion or special assignment.

Montgomery County's evaluation system differentiates between observation and evaluation. Observation refers to "seeing and hearing, recording, reviewing and analyzing performance throughout the year," while evaluation refers to the "making of judgments for the completion of the evaluation form at the end of the year."

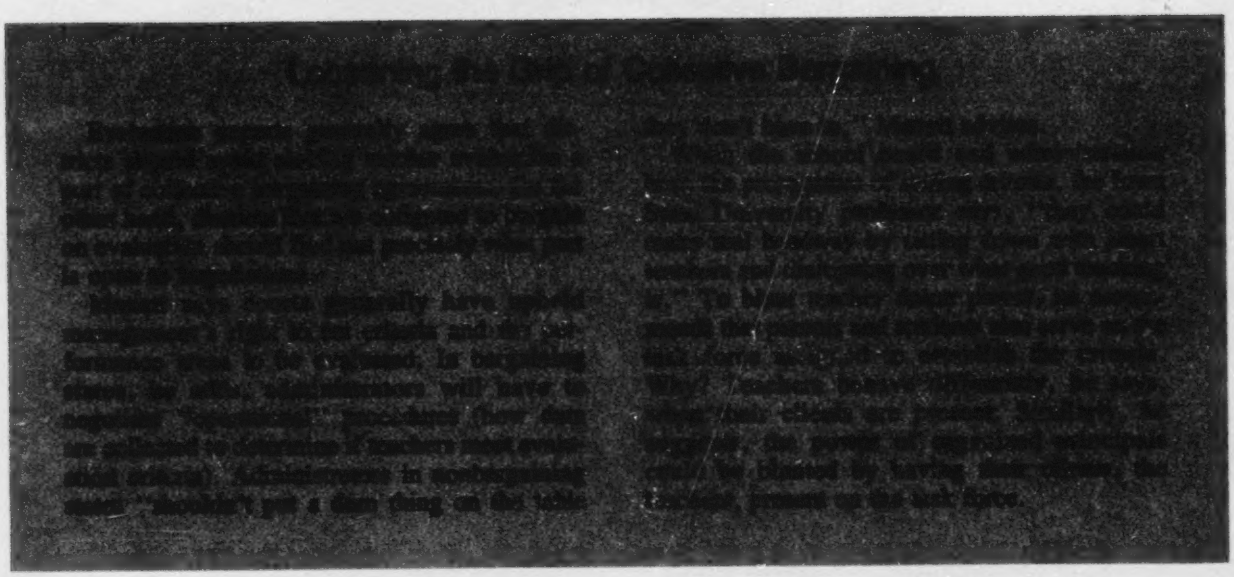
The system puts heavy emphasis on classroom observations. For example, every teacher must be observed in classroom performance every year. Tenured teachers are formally evaluated once every three years. In the evaluation year, they are observed teaching in the classroom three times. In non-evaluation years, two observations are required. Teachers holding Class II certificates are observed five times per year; probationary teachers are observed four times yearly.

Observations may be made by the principal, assistant principal, secondary school resource teacher, area and subject supervisors or other area administrators. However, the principal or assistant principal must be the observer in at least half the minimum number of required observations.

Evaluators are requested to make "factual and objective" notes of the observation, "avoiding inferences and premature conclusions." Teachers may receive a copy of the evaluator's notes before the post-conference.

Observations and evaluation focus on 11 performance criteria:

1. "Appraises student learning levels, interests and needs.
2. "Establishes learning objectives consistent with appraisal of student needs, requirements of the district's curriculum framework and knowledge of human growth and development.
3. "Plans and provides for involvement of all students in the learning process.
4. "Plans for and uses those instructional methods which motivate and enable each student to achieve learning objectives.
5. "Plans for and utilizes those resources which motivate each student to achieve learning objectives.
6. "Plans for and utilizes evaluation techniques which motivate and enable each student to achieve learning objectives.
7. "Establishes and maintains the environment required to motivate and enable each student to achieve learning objectives.



8. "Appraises the effectiveness of his teaching practices and instructional program not only in terms of achieving his own objectives but also in terms of the total school's instructional program.
9. "Participates in school management and shares responsibility for the total school program.
10. "Establishes relationships with colleagues, students, parents and community which reflect recognition of and respect for every individual.
11. "Identifies areas for growth necessary to maintain or improve effectiveness; acquires appropriate training or information; and demonstrates successful application."

The evaluation form provides up to seven "indicators" for each of the 11 criteria. Here's an example:

Criterion: Appraise student learning levels, interests and needs.

Indicators:
1) Uses information in cumulative folders and in other school records.
2) Uses individual and group observations.
3) Consults with parents.
4) Selects and utilizes appropriate diagnostic tests (district, standardized and teacher-made).
5) Surveys students as a group, and consults with them individually.
6) Consults with previous teachers, team teachers and/or specialists.

Evaluators refer to the indicators to determine how teachers are to be graded in fulfilling each of the criteria. Three grades are used: "effective," "needs improvement" and "not effective." In addition, the evaluation form requests that evaluators write in a "supporting statement" to substantiate the grade given to the evaluatee for each of the 11 criteria.

The teacher and the observer meet in a post-conference within three days after the observation to share data and to correct or clarify impressions. The teacher has the right to add comments and informational and material evidence of effectiveness. The observer can suggest ideas for improved performance and other support action which might help the teacher to become more effective.

In addition to the cycle of classroom observations, Montgomery County teachers are expected to collect and analyze data on their own performance (self-appraisal) and to seek parent input on positive as well as negative aspects of performance. Teachers are not required to share these results with anyone, but many do.

The district also requires student appraisal of teachers — one of relatively few districts that do so. Every year before the end of the first semester, each teacher in grades 1-12 administers and analyzes the results of a student questionnaire. Teachers may use district forms or design their own questionnaire, which must be submitted for the principal's approval. The principal must be notified in writing of the date the questionnaire will be administered. Students respond anonymously, and teachers are expected to discuss results with them. The ratings are considered part of teachers' self-appraisal; they need not be shared. However, many teachers do share the ratings with their principals, other observers and evaluators and with colleagues.

Under the Montgomery County evaluation system, teachers must devise one or more objectives for their own improvement or emphasis throughout the year. Teachers and evaluators work together in designing and developing such objectives. They are supposed to represent each teacher's own personal priority for growth, in other words, a self-posed challenge. The teacher's overall evaluation is not based on whether the teacher succeeds in attaining the objective(s).

The formal evaluation of the teacher (once every three years for a tenured teacher) is completed during a conference between the teacher and the evaluator. It is submitted to the district's department of personnel services.

The district summarizes its view on evaluation with this comment: "The formal evaluation should produce no surprises for the teacher, since it is based on all the data collected by and for the evaluator and the teacher throughout the period of employment since the previous evaluation."

Critique of the system: Asked what teachers think of the system, Graham said he "doesn't hear much complaining about the system itself," only the kind of generalized griping teachers do about any type of evaluation. Some principals have reservations. While agreeing that the evaluation plan is helpful to them in talking with teachers about classroom teaching problems, they criticize the 11 criteria against which performance is measured. Some of the criteria are more important than others, the principals say, yet all are weighted equally in assessing teacher performance. Teachers must receive seven or more "effective" ratings on the 11 criteria in order to receive a recommendation for continued employment.

Graham agrees that the criteria are not of equal importance. For example, criterion #2 calls on the teacher to "establish learning objectives consistent with appraisal of student needs, requirements of the district's curriculum framework and knowledge of human growth and development."

"That is a very powerful statement," Graham says, and any teacher who can't meet it "is not going to be very effective in the classroom." That criterion, however, is given the same weight as criterion #9. It states that the teacher will "participate in school management and share responsibility for the total school program." Graham says it is hardly as important to classroom teaching. His conclusion: Changes in the 11 criteria would probably be made in any future revision of the evaluation system.

Overall, the system receives high marks for effectiveness. One possible indicator that the evaluation system, along with good hiring practices, may be keeping up teacher performance is the low teacher dismissal rates in the district over the past five years. Out of 4,125 teachers, only three were dismissed in 1979, seven in 1978, three in 1977, four in 1976 and five in 1975.

CHAPTER VI

Learning Time:

How To Get It; How To Use It

Now that research is stressing the importance of time as an essential component of learning, school administrators are finding there's less of it than ever for actual classroom instruction.

To illustrate: A study by the Austin (Tex.) Independent School District in 1977 revealed that students were getting only about 3 hours and 45 minutes of actual classroom instruction out of a school day of 6 hours and 30 minutes. More than one-fifth of each day was being spent in non-instructional activities — listening to announcements, taking out or putting away supplies, bathroom trips, discipline or simply waiting for teacher instruction, says Freda M. Holley, Austin's research director. More time was eaten away by lunch and recess.

As the Austin school board and administrators were pondering their startling findings, Supt. Charles W. Fowler of the Fairfield (Conn.) Public Schools was deciding that student decline in basic skills was attributable at least partially to a reduction in learning time compared to 20 years ago. By studying his board's past and present policies, Fowler learned that today's children receive approximately 100 fewer hours of instruction. Moreover, Fowler noted that today's schools include more curriculum to be mastered: social and physical sciences, career education, nutrition education, bilingual education. Fowler also found other activities eating into instructional time: mainstreaming the handicapped, parent conferences, staff inservice meetings, staff orientation and an increasing number of legal holidays set by the state.

In interviews for this **Critical Issues Report,** Holley and Fowler describe what their respective school districts are doing to increase learning instructional time for youngsters.

Austin:
Making Teachers Time-Conscious

The Austin schools developed a plan to alert all teachers to recent research findings on classroom management techniques that could help them improve time-use patterns in the classroom. The school district received a grant from the National Institute of Education. It also drew on the resources of the University of Texas Research and Development Center. The plan included mandatory faculty meetings — some local and some areawide. At the meetings, every elementary teacher viewed and discussed a slide-tape presentation showing new techniques validated by research:

- How to manage transitional time from one learning activity to another.
- How to establish rules of procedure for class activities.
- How to teach children to turn to their workbooks without fumbling.
- How to arrange the class for reading instruction so that the teacher can watch the whole class as well as observe the reading groups.
- How to call on students so that each one gets a turn.
- How to keep classroom activities flowing smoothly, thereby reducing discipline problems which cut into learning time.

Following the faculty meetings, instructional coordinators visited all Austin elementary classrooms to observe how well the teachers were using the new techniques. The major goal was to increase instructional time in all classes — a goal that took two years to achieve, Holley says.

Austin's research shows that saving a few minutes of instructional time at every opportunity throughout the school day adds up to a significant increase in learning time over a year's time. For instance, students in non-Title I schools received 23 minutes more instructional time each day in 1977-78 than they had the previous year. Title I students received 24 minutes more, and non-Title I students in Title I schools, 34 minutes more. Describing these results in *The American School Board Journal,* Austin Supt. Jack L. Davidson noted that over the 175-day Texas school year, students gained 10 to 16 full days (or from 65 to 104 hours) of additional instructional time. Furthermore, Davidson noted, achievement scores increased in reading and math programs at every level in the spring of 1978, including those for students in compensatory programs.

If the school district had simply lengthened the school year by 10 to 16 days, the payroll costs for classroom personnel alone would have been $2 to $3 million, Davidson speculated. And, he noted, that does not include extra maintenance and other operational costs. Davidson's point is simply this: The Austin school district provided more instruction to students without increasing the taxpayer's burden.

Holley says Austin's time-management process has made not only educators but also the public "very time-conscious." The process received wide press coverage — from the initial discouraging findings to a proposal that the school board tackle the time problem by lengthening the school day. This proposal was widely discussed, with many parents testifying in its favor. It finally failed, Holley says, on two counts: The prospect of greatly increased transportation costs and opposition from the teachers association on the grounds that it would increase teachers' work day and cause them to lose planning time.

Update on Austin's time management process: The school district did not monitor time use so closely in 1979, according to Holley. But the district is continuing to improve teachers' sensitivity to time management and is keeping current with research findings on the subject, she says. The district also is revising teacher evaluation procedures to include competencies in classroom management and instructional skills.

Fairfield:
Interdisciplinary Approach; Cutting Waste

Supt. Charles W. Fowler and his colleagues in Fairfield, Conn., conducted a study of elementary school teachers to determine how to find more time for instruction. Initially, they investigated how instructional time was being used and how much time was lost by students being taken away from regular classes for special purposes, including music lessons, band, chorus, health checks, testing and special programs. These special purposes may be very important, Fowler admits, "perhaps even more important for the individual child than staying in his regular class." Nevertheless, he adds, "this initial study showed we simply do not have enough time to meet our instructional needs."

Fowler plans to work with individual teachers on setting priorities on the use of time for students. Student and parent assessments will be gathered, Fowler says, "and then we will help our teachers develop and demonstrate time priorities through inservice education."

One of Fowler's ideas to eke out more instructional time in the elementary school is to work toward a more interdisciplinary approach. "With the same unit of time," he explains, "we could meet a number of instructional objectives." As an example, Fowler mentions a new energy awareness program begun in elementary schools in the fall of 1979. The first question from teachers was this: "Where's the time coming from for us to do this energy program? We haven't done it before, and the time for teaching about energy will have to come out of the time for teaching about something else."

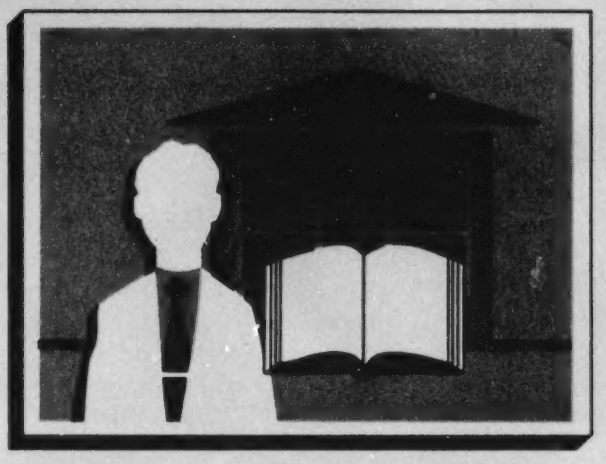
By applying the interdisciplinary approach, Fowler says, "we stop treating areas of knowledge as discrete entities and more as a unit. Energy problems in science can be studied as part of political science or social studies or in math, by using units of measurement to measure energy consumption. Teachers can devise writing experiments for children relating to the energy problem."

Fowler offers some general advice for administrators and boards of education concerned over the erosion of teaching time:

- Observe closely what happens in your schools as the school year begins and ends. Are students spending the last two or three weeks of the school year on final exams, review sessions, collecting books, taking field trips, rehearsing for commencement? Teachers and students might be losing as much as 10 percent of teaching time in "getting ready" in the fall and "shutting up shop" in the spring.
- Use summer school to increase learning time for those in search of either remediation or enrichment. "You can't extend the school year or school day without running up against restrictive teacher contracts and huge pocketbook outlays," Fowler cautions.
- Save learning time. A competency based curriculum, learning contracts and independent study programs will enable students to move as fast as their own abilities will carry them, instead of holding them to the pace of other students.
- Keep time in mind when you're bargaining with teachers. For example, offering teachers additional planning time during the school day means students will be spending less time learning in the classroom.

CHAPTER VII

Inservice Education



Teacher colleges used to rule the roost when it came to inservice education. Through their degree-granting powers, they could say to the practicing teacher: This is our campus course for credit. Take it or leave it. And the teacher had to take it.

Now, 80 percent of practicing teachers have no further certification requirements to meet, says Herbert Hite of the Teacher Corps staff, Western Washington University, Bellingham. Furthermore, when seeking to upgrade their professional skills, teachers prefer courses offered "onsite" in their own school district — especially if they have a say in deciding what the courses will be — or at a teacher center, run by teachers for teachers. (See next chapter on teacher centers.)

Teacher colleges' loss of what used to be a steady stream of customers, all paying out of their own pockets for courses required for professional advancement, coincides with an even grimmer reality — the precipitous decline in enrollments of potential teachers since 1972. One example: Western Michigan University reports that it graduated 4,000 prospective teachers in 1970, but only 800 in 1979. Nationally, the all-time high of teacher graduates was 317,254 in 1972. By 1978, the number had plummeted to 190,266. The decline caused Hite to comment: "Professors of education may not be an endangered species yet, but they certainly are a threatened species." He adds: "The very existence of schools of education is threatened."

Trying to get a toehold on inservice: As a matter of survival, teacher colleges have been trying to become involved in the modern version of inservice education. Their more candid representatives admit, however, that teacher colleges are not well equipped to teach the kinds of things today's teachers identify as necessary to improve their skills or the kinds of things administrators view as needed by school districts.

Another problem: Teacher colleges are not as well prepared as school districts to tackle inservice for the "lay-ons," according to Prof. Ronald G. Petrie of Portland (Ore.) State University. By "lay-ons," he means the training required by teachers to comply with federal and state laws such as education for the handicapped and minimum competency standards for high school graduation. In fact, Petrie says, professors in the colleges and schools of education probably will have to be retrained themselves in order to fit in with the new look of inservice education. Federal legislation introduced by Sen. Harrison Williams (D-N.J.) and Rep. Ted Weiss (D-N.Y.) early in 1979 would provide grants to higher education institutions to help them retain their faculties to offer alternative courses of study for students enrolled in elementary and secondary teaching programs.

In the meantime, some teacher colleges have tried to initiate a partnership role with school districts in staff development. Some have established free-wheeling branches to work directly with school districts, "subject to a minimum of bureaucratic constraints," notes Elizabeth A. Dillon, director of staff development, Lincoln (Nebr.) Public School District. "Such colleges and universities," she continues, "provide college credit for inservice training which focuses on the identified needs of local school districts or individual staff members."

An example of a school-based training program: James Kaatz of the School of Education at California State University — San Diego describes master degree programs in the *National Elementary Principal* that are being delivered at the school site rather than having teachers go to the college campus. "We have very

positive feelings about the programs," Kaatz writes.

"There's a different kind of chemistry that takes place when you send a professor 25 miles to meet with 30 teachers," Kaatz says. He adds: "We're not willing to offer a one-unit workshop in a far-away school district on a kind of on-call basis, but 10 to 12 of our 40 faculty members are developing inservice programs."

Similarly, the University of Arizona's College of Education sends almost all of its faculty into the field at one time or another to teach both preservice and inservice classes.

Cooperative university and school district Teacher Corps projects have been installed in many school districts in the past decade. These provide opportunities for university and public school staff members to work with teachers in both preservice and inservice education. One educator at the federal level noted that the Teacher Corps has tried to become a bridge from participating colleges of education to host school districts.

What Teachers Don't Want

Many teachers openly criticize what they consider the typical, old-style inservice education program. Why? Here's a description of how such a program works, as described by a New York State English teacher: "The top administrators in the school system say to themselves, 'Our teachers need an inservice program on Subject X.' They bring in some Big Name to run it. Big Name says to us teachers, 'You've got a problem. Here's my book that shows you how to solve the problem.' His book costs money. It doesn't apply to our situation. Big Name leaves. That's the end of inservice for awhile."

Here's another situation which causes teacher disillusionment with inservice education, as described by John H. Holcomb, superintendent of the Lamar (Colo.) Public Schools: "The teacher leaves his family for an expensive summer of inservice education at the university 200 miles away. He takes four courses and, of the four, only one will be really useful in his everyday teaching."

Some other approaches to inservice education that cause teachers to revolt are the following:

The Administrator Knows Best — Administrators, convinced that inservice education is something done *to* and *for* teachers, rather than *by* and *with* teachers, make all of the plans in the central office and then announce them to the teachers. The teachers, however, believe they know best what training they should have to improve performance. Moreover, they want to take part in the decision-making, have opportunities to write their own guides and curriculum, tailor-make their own materials and help choose the trainer.

Administrators should also note that teachers are increasingly demonstrating their intention to exert a stronger influence through contract negotiations on such matters as released time for inservice.

The 100 Percent Solution — Following this approach, all teachers get the same dose of inservice education at the same time, whether they need it or not. No one program — no matter how flexible or comprehensive — can serve the needs of all teachers simultaneously, says Prof. Gerald R. Firth of the University of Georgia, Athens. Firth says administrators tend to think in terms of the whole school or the whole district when designing inservice programs. Teachers, on the other hand, think of their own personal needs for improvement and how best to meet them.

The Sock-It-To-Them Method — One federal education study pointed out that many teachers feel drained after a long day or week and they cannot be expected to put forth their best efforts into inservice education sessions scheduled after school, in the evening or on weekends. Many teachers believe that they should be given released time to participate in district-sponsored improvement programs. Furthermore, says the NEA's Roy Edelfelt, teacher organizations take the position that their members should not have to subsidize advanced training to meet a particular school district need. If inservice education is essential for a district to guarantee quality education to its clients, says Edelfelt, the district should be responsible for providing adequate funding.

The Cloud Nine Course — Teachers don't want theory; they want training that will pay off in the classroom. They are looking for practical, concrete ideas and "how-to" on topics relevant to their immediate teaching situation and help on specific techniques: classroom management, pupil needs, and testing and evaluation procedures.

Perhaps the most powerful incentive for pursuing any inservice activity, says Prof. Kenneth R. Howey of the University of Minnesota, "is the sure knowledge that it will make one a better teacher."

Lukewarm Management

Teachers cannot be expected to respond enthusiastically to staff development programs if principals and central office staff are lukewarm in their enthusiasm for the programs. A study of the spread of innovative projects in schools, conducted by the Rand Corporation for the federal government, found that the attitudes of top management were a "signal" to teachers as to how seriously they should take a newly adopted project. One respondent said to the Rand researchers: "The superintendent had better believe in the project and give it his personal backing and support. Many teachers won't put in the required extra effort if they believe the district bosses aren't interested." The study also found that the attitude of the building principal is critical to long-term results and directly related to staff use of the project methods and materials after the withdrawal of federal funding.

The Same Old Thing

Inservice courses that simply elaborate on present practice in the school district turn off experienced teachers (although younger teachers may need them). On the other hand, the Rand study found, the more complex and ambitious the project, the higher the proportion of committed teachers. The complex projects appealed to the teachers' sense of professionalism, the Rand researchers concluded.

What Do Teachers Want?

What kinds of inservice education would teachers choose to meet their most pressing needs? That question was posed by the AFT Teacher Center Exchange, a federally funded clearinghouse which provides information on teachers centers to affiliates of the American Federation of Teachers.

The presidents of 428 AFT locals in 36 states said they wanted: programs that would enable teachers to create a more positive learning environment for students; programs to help teachers with special education assignments; "other" professional development programs such as those for the "burned-out" teacher, basic skills competency testing, and teacher-to-teacher communications; and "activities that are intellectually stimulating, relevant and provide a feeling of unity."

The AFT presidents included the following specific suggestions for "programs that would enable teachers to create a more positive learning environment for students":

— Introduction to new textbooks, maps and media for meeting individual student needs.
— New teaching techniques to help motivate learners.
— Current content-area innovations to adapt instruction to learner needs.
— Teaching of reading on the secondary level (interdisciplinary; not as a separate subject).
— Individualized and personalized programs for the elementary student.
— Metric education to orient students to metric measurement.
— Behavior modification techniques and special programs for disruptive students.
— Classroom management techniques that will insure student achievement and success.

The category of inservice needs in the area of special education included: mainstreaming; sign language; behavior problems; using new resources in individual education programs with the retarded; helping handicapped learners in occupational areas; federal and state laws governing the education of the handicapped; and writing IEPs (individualized education programs).

What Makes Inservice Worthwhile?

What makes inservice education programs worthwhile and effective in the eyes of teachers? Several studies offer concrete answers to that question. One answer is provided by Prof. Gordon Lawrence of the University of Florida, Gainesville. He examined 97 studies of inservice education to determine those ingredients that teachers said changed their attitudes and benefited their performance. Following are his findings:

- Teacher attitudes are more likely to be influenced in school-based rather than in college-based inservice programs.
- School-based inservice programs that emphasize self-instruction by teachers have a strong record of effectiveness.
- Inservice programs that place the teacher in an active role are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs that put the teacher in a passive role.
- Inservice programs that emphasize demonstrations, supervised trials and feedback are more likely to accomplish their goals than are those in which the teachers are expected to "store up" ideas and behavior prescriptions for some future time.
- Inservice programs in which teachers share and provide mutual assistance to each other are more likely to achieve their objectives than are those in which each teacher works alone.
- Teachers are more likely to benefit from inservice

education activities that are linked to a general effort of the school than they are from "single shot" programs that are not part of a general staff development plan.

- Teachers are more likely to benefit from inservice programs in which they can choose goals and activities for themselves as contrasted with programs in which the goals and activities are pre-planned.

The federally funded Rand Change Agent Study identified some additional elements of effective inservice education. It noted that these elements were particularly effective when applied in concert:

- Concrete, teacher-specific and extended training.
- Classroom assistance from project or district staff.
- Teacher observation of similar projects in other classrooms.
- Regular meetings that focused on practical problems.
- Teacher participation in decision making.
- Local development of materials.
- Participation of the principal in the training.

Status Report: Federal $$ for Inservice

The 1979 budget of the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) included about $300 million for school personnel development, according to C. Emily Feistritzer, coordinator of the 1978 USOE Commis-

How To Deliver Effective Inservice Education

What does it take to deliver an effective inservice education program?

Initiative, common sense, hard work, follow-up. That's one answer. Another is provided by Prof. William A. Drummond of the University of Florida. In a tongue-in-cheek speech, he told the National Council of States on Inservice Education that the "delivery" of effective inservice education to teachers requires the following actions:

"You need some people who are willing to receive the delivery. If they aren't at home or won't open the door, it's hard to get what you're delivering inside."

"You need something to deliver that isn't there yet. If it's already there, they don't need it. If it's there but they don't know it, they'll probably waste it or not use it."

"You need someone to make the delivery — someone who can get it to where it belongs without dropping it and who feels responsible for getting it there in good condition."

"You need some people who can find out generally what other people want. Then, either have it made locally or order it."

"You need someone who sees to it that individual requests are honored, handled quickly, accurately and courteously."

"You need someone who sees to it that what is delivered matches what was ordered."

"You need someone who keeps records about the whole operation — who ordered what, when, what was sent, how it was delivered, in what condition, at what cost."

"You need to know the mission or goal for the business: some reason for engaging in the enterprise."

"You need some means of communicating all of the above points to everyone who has a stake in the business: the deliverers, the receivers, the technology developers and the resource providers."

sioner's Task Force on Professional Development of Educational Personnel. Most of these funds were concentrated in programs such as ESEA Title I and the Vocational Education State Formula Grants Program and to train or retrain teachers in specialities such as special education, bilingual education and vocational education.

Only two federally supported programs — Teacher Corps and Teacher Centers — support *general* staff development. Feistritzer notes, however, that 17 other discretionary programs include some component for educational personnel development. Included are: several programs administered by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped; Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education; Bilingual Education; Civil Rights Act, Title IV; Emergency School Aid Act; Division of Educational Replication; Arts Education; Right to Read [now Basic Skills]; Metric Education; Community Schools; Consumer Education; Career Education; Indian Education; and Follow Through.

How much do teachers benefit? The list of federal programs with staff development components is impressive but, Feistritzer points out, staff development funds made up less than 3 percent of USOE's 1979 budget of $12 billion. Feistritzer estimates that only about 1 percent of the nation's teachers benefit directly from federally sponsored staff development programs.

Feistritzer is critical of the way federal mandates for inservice education are carried out. She says, for example, that 75 percent of the USOE programs with inservice components do not have specific regulations nor do they specify kinds of training to be provided or how training should be delivered. She calls for more interagency cooperation at the federal level to "avoid overlap of programmatic content and delivery" and for more coordination among state and local programs with staff development components.

Status Report: District and State Support For Inservice Education

Few school districts have set aside significant funds for teacher and administrator professional development, said a December 1977 report issued by the Illinois Policy Project on Accreditation, Certification and Continuing Education. The report, sponsored by the National Institute for Education, noted that school costs jumped from $18 billion in 1960 to $75.1 billion in 1976, with almost 90 percent of school budgets tied to salaries. "Yet," the report stated, "relatively little is invested in the continuing maintenance or improvement of those human resources."

Where school districts have made any investment, the report concluded, the funds have been used to reimburse teachers for advanced degree programs or for "sporadic inservice programs described by teachers as 'piecemeal, haphazard and ineffective.' "

Another view on school district expenditures for staff improvement comes from W. Robert Houston and H. Jerome Freiberg of the University of Houston, writing in the *Journal of Teacher Education*. They said a school district with more than 1 percent of its budget devoted to improving staff competence "is rare indeed." Dean Robert B. Howsam of the same university noted that one suburban New York City district spends $20,000 a year on inservice education out of a total budget of nearly $30 million.

How much should a district spend on inservice? The Commission on Education of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education recommends a minimum of 10 percent.

Look to the state? The Illinois Policy Project concluded that the best prospects of funds for inservice education appear to be at the state level.

State legislation, however, does not adequately provide for staff development, concluded Wendell C. Allen, former associate commissioner of education for Washington State. Inservice education "is only advocated" in state statutes, said Allen in *The Role of State Education Agencies in Inservice Education*, published by the National Council of States on Inservice Education (NCSIE).

Allen also noted the lack of money provided for continuing education of teachers, "although there is strong agreement on its desirability." He added: "The expectation seems to be that local districts should pick up the costs."

Things may be looking up. Inservice education may be generating more support at the state level, judging by a 1979 poll conducted by NCSIE. It found:

- 38 percent of the states have a statewide policy regarding inservice education.
- 70 percent spend state money in addition to federal funds to support staff development.
- 49 percent permit inservice credit for certification purposes.
- 43 percent are planning for a state plan for inservice education.
- 25 percent are completing or are implementing state plans for inservice education and staff development.
- 90 percent of the states have formal authority for providing inservice education for school staffs.

In an interview for this **Critical Issues Report,** NCSIE Director James F. Collins cited several states with noteworthy approaches to inservice education:

- **Massachusetts** for its "comprehensive statewide inservice resources."
- **Pennsylvania** and **Maryland** for their leadership in administrator training through executive academies.
- **Michigan** for its state plan, which involves funding a network of training centers.
- **West Virginia** for its development of staff training modules.
- **Florida** for its network of state-supported teacher centers. A "unique" aspect of Florida's inservice effort, said Collins, is a state provision which allows colleges and universities to receive state money to support faculty salaries, provided the money is devoted to noncredit inservice work with school districts. In other words, hard-pressed institutions of higher education can save professorial jobs, and school districts can get help from professors without cost. In 1979, Florida spent $8 million or approximately $5 per student to retrain teachers.
- **California** for its Professional Development and Program Improvement Centers. Begun in 1968, the centers are just one segment of the state's move to upgrade skills of practicing educators. In 1977-78, the state spent $675,000 to train 3,278 teachers and principals at 16 development centers around the state; districts participating in center activities contributed another $996,465 of their own funds.

Note: Another effort worth watching is Rhode Island's attempt to develop a model statewide inservice education program. The project, which is being supported with more than $700,000 in grants from the U.S. Office of Education during 1979 and 1980, has the active backing of education-minded Sen. Claiborne Pell (D-R.I.). In the first year of the project, the state established a 19-member policy board consisting of teachers, superintendents, school board officials and representatives of institutions of higher education. After testing the model on a statewide basis, an effort will be made to "package" it so that it can be easily shared with other states.

Worth noting: NCSIE, with 42 member states, has been funded by the federal Teacher Corps program since 1976. One of its major goals is to improve communication and exchange of information among Teacher Corps projects and Teacher Center projects in the various states. Another goal is to share information on inservice training and staff development activities among state education agencies, Teacher Corps projects, school districts, universities and colleges of teacher education and professional associations. For more information, contact James Collins, Director, National Council of States on Inservice Education, 123 Huntington Hall, 150 Marshall St., Syracuse, N.Y. 13210; phone: 315/423-4167.

Examples of Programs

New York Inservice Project Spurs 'Togetherness'

"We've been talking about vertical articulation in our school district for 15 years," says Marjorie Lieneck, chairman of the English Department at Hastings High School, Hastings-on-Hudson, N.Y. "It's finally happening," she adds. "The thing that's bringing our K-12 teachers together is our inservice education project where teachers are teaching teachers."

Spurring this new feeling of togetherness in the New York high school is a project funded by an ESEA Title IV-C grant. It allowed Lieneck's district to replicate a project called Reading in the Content Area. In the first year of the project, five teachers from two schools and the high school principal were trained as program leaders. In the second and third years, the five teachers, with "the principal cheering us on from the sidelines," became the teachers of other staff members in the district. Each year, they train 17 to 20 teachers from grades 2-12 in the methods they themselves were taught.

The inservice training is voluntary, although the teachers are eligible for inservice credit. They do not get paid for the inservice days, which are held on Saturdays and during the summer, and few are eligible for increment credit.

By the end of the training, says Lieneck, the teachers will have learned to group within heterogeneous classes so that students can teach each other; they will have observed and been observed by their trainers and their peers; they will have developed several lessons and a six-week unit which includes lessons on vocabulary, reading comprehension and patterns of organization — all in their own grade and subject materials. In two years, 37 out of about 100 teachers in the district were trained by the project.

Teachers from every grade level work closely together. Lieneck notes: "This was a problem before the project began. The elementary, middle and senior high schools had such different philosophies of education that students had a hard time when they moved from one level to the next.

"Now," she says, "teachers go into each others' classes, and we share materials. We see firsthand how the first grade teacher's problems differ from ours in high school. An elementary teacher may say to a high school teacher, 'I had that child in 6th grade, and I never dreamed he'd develop that kind of problem in high school.' Or a third grade teacher may say to the senior high school science teacher, 'We never thought you were interested in what we did in the 3rd grade.'"

Asked why teachers are putting so much time and energy into the inservice program, Lieneck says "it comes out of their sense of professionalism. They know they are doing a better job."

When Lieneck and other teachers requested funds from the school board to continue the program, the high school principal accompanied them "so the board knew the program had some official sanction." The board gave the teachers more money ($10,500 annually for two years) than they requested.

Southeastern Colorado: 15 Rural Districts Establish Inservice Center

In 1976, John H. Holcomb, superintendent of the Lamar (Colo.) School District, decided he had to find a "better way" to provide inservice training to his teachers, principals and other administrators than the courses offered by a graduate school of education 200 miles away. Holcomb became more convinced when he heard complaints from several teachers and administrators that the graduate courses they had taken during the summer and in extension courses generally were not suitable for their needs.

By 1978, Holcomb's district, along with 14 others serving communities in sparsely settled agricultural and ranching lands, had decided to form the Southeastern Colorado Educational Renewal Center. It now serves all 400 teachers and administrators in the area.

The center was approved by the Colorado Department of Education to offer recertification credit. The school boards of each of the 15 cooperating districts, moreover, agreed to permit salary schedule changes and increments based on courses taken at the center.

How the center was started: When Holcomb was initially considering the concept of an education center, he was called to Washington, D.C., on business. While there, he visited the offices of the National Institute of Education (NIE) to gather ideas to refine his concept. The first thing the NIE staffers asked, Holcomb says, was: "How much money do you want?" He said he didn't want any; he wanted ideas. When he showed the NIE personnel his simple outline of how he thought the center might work, they told him it would take $200,000 to $300,000 to get the project started.

What it actually took was $2,000 loaned by his district as "upfront" money to cover telephone calls and postage. During the first year, the center broke almost even, Holcomb says, "clearing over $1,800 from fees paid by students ($25 per semester hour)." The next year, the profit was estimated at $3,000 to $5,000.

The center is now self-supporting, with users paying fees, and school district administrators and teachers from all 15 systems contributing time for policymaking and administration.

Governance: The steering committee for the center is composed of teachers and administrators from the Lamar School District, the largest in the area (town population, 12,000). The other 14 districts handle fiscal matters, contracting with instructors, correspondence and other administrative matters. Together, the 15 districts comprise the Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES). Another partner in the center is the Lamar Community College. It donates space for summer courses and computer services. Cooperation with the college has a side benefit, Holcomb points out, because "it forces some articulation between high schools and the college that wasn't there before."

How the center operates: The center runs one summer session in June, a second in August. The courses last one week and are intensive, says Holcomb. In the first year of the center's operation, teachers were asked to choose courses from a prepared list and to submit additional suggestions. The offerings now fall into two categories: (1) "horizon-expanding" courses which might include a course on the history of the area, administrative renewal, arts and crafts in the classroom; and (2) "skill building" courses for teachers in areas such as reading, classroom management, discipline, mathematics, science and visual aids. Each course runs 3½ hours per day, thus enabling interested educators to take two courses, morning and afternoon, and to acquire two semester credit hours per one-week session. Class size is set at no less than 10, no more than 25. Two basic requirements apply to courses offered by the center: they must be practical and authoritative. The center requires every potential course instructor to conduct a one-hour trial run of teaching before at least four other instructors. Holcomb notes that some professors of education "have been highly insulted to think that they, with three books to their credit, should have to undergo any such screening."

Several of the center's instructors are not educators. A district court judge who handles juvenile cases teaches a course on Colorado's child abuse law. Another example: Holcomb points out that most tradi-

tional first aid classes for teachers are taught by fire fighters or police officers who tend to concentrate on what to do in the event of highway accidents or major disasters. "That is not exactly what most teachers need to learn," Holcomb comments. The center hired a 3rd grade teacher's aide to teach its course. In addition to being a qualified first aid instructor, cardio/pulmonary resuscitation instructor and emergency medical technician, she also could give teachers advice based on real school experience that would sound something like this: "Now, here's what I did when that 3rd grader stepped off the swing and hit her head. . . ."

Still another example of a non-educator who is teaching a course at the center is a newspaper editor who also happens to be a history buff and an expert on the subject of the history of the area.

Holcomb cites another advantage of offering courses through the center: Each course has a built-in, 30-minute refreshment break. "It's a great cross-pollinating experience for the school folk." He adds: "At break time, people from all grade levels, different school districts, administrators and teachers, veterans and novices, are all sitting around comparing notes and talking shop."

Spin-offs from the center: Courses taken under center auspices during the summer lead to inservice education activities during the school year, says Holcomb. One example: He teaches a course in administrator renewal designed to "open administrators' eyes to what's out there in the rest of the world." As part of the course, Holcomb arranges for guest appearances such as the state commissioner of education and other educators to discuss legislation, how to create a good school learning climate or the skills required for clinical supervision. Any topic in such a series can lead to a request from principals, for example, for a more intensive inservice course.

Another spin-off from the summer center activities is an inservice course to counteract the "midwinter blahs." These activities have ranged from a physical fitness course to discussions by a minister on the power of positive thinking, by a paramedic on stress, and by educators on ways to individualize classroom instruction and problem solving techniques.

Holcomb concludes that the center's summer courses and follow-up activites are beginning to produce high-quality inservice education for teachers and administrators in an isolated geographic area.

For more information, contact John H. Holcomb, Superintendent, Lamar School District, Lamar, Colo. 81052.

Federal Program: Teacher Corps

The Teacher Corps, the granddaddy of all federal staff development programs, has undergone a couple of facelifts in recent years. When it started in 1965, its mission was to recruit and train future teachers for low-income students. With a decrease in demand for new teachers, however, the Teacher Corps changed its mission in 1977 to one of providing inservice training for entire schools located in poverty area.

Teacher Corps projects emphasize planned collaboration among teacher education institutions, local school districts, state education agencies and communities. Training grants extend for five years, up from two years in earlier days.

Another important change, according to Teacher Corps Director William L. Smith, is that funded projects can now directly involve the superintendent and administrative and support staff in inservice training.

The "new look" Teacher Corps included about 80 projects in 1979, involving 12,000 teachers and approximately 300,000 students. The projects affect all levels of school from early childhood through high school with training primarily for teachers, administrators, supervisors and other school staff already on the job.

The program emphasizes training for multicultural education and the identification, diagnosis and prescription of activities for children with learning and behavioral problems in the classroom.

Elected representatives of communities served by the schools participate in the planning and development of each project, along with college and university faculties who provide much of the training. The policy board of a Teacher Corps project includes the superintendent of the local education agency, the dean of the school of education and the chairperson of the local elected community council.

For more information, contact William L. Smith, Director, Teacher Corps, Donohoe Building, 400 6th St., S.W., Washington, D.C. 20202.

Federal Program: National Diffusion Network

The National Diffusion Network (NDN) is a federally funded program that enables schools to improve their educational offerings by helping them to "adopt" more than 160 exemplary NDN projects. Teachers and other staff members in a school or district making an adoption of an NDN project, moreover, receive inservice training in the use of the project's methods and materials. Consequently, im-

proved teaching is generally a byproduct of an adoption.

"The NDN is providing more inservice training for teachers than any other program in existence at this time," says Lee Wickline, top federal administrator of the NDN. How much inservice does NDN provide? A survey of NDN project directors revealed that more than 25,500 teachers from 4,200 schools in 2,700 school districts received inservice training during 1978-79 in the use of one or more NDN projects.

NDN projects appeal to teachers because most of them were developed by classroom teachers who had a good idea about how to solve a problem encountered in the classroom. One-third of the projects, for example, focus on basic skills. Others offer solutions to numerous educational problems. Examples: classroom management, how to identify early learning problems, special education and dealing with disaffected youth.

Some NDN projects feature teacher-developed curriculum materials; others show how to make better use of commercial materials. Unlike many commercial publishers, however, NDN project directors offer inservice training to explain and demonstrate methods and materials used by the project to get results in the classroom. Inservice training is an integral part of the adoption process.

What kinds of projects are available for adoption? In the 1979-80 school year, 163 exemplary projects were receiving "dissemination" funds to help schools in their own and other states adopt them. Here is a breakdown of all of the projects by category:

NDN Projects Available for Adoption

Category	%	No. of projects
Basic Skills	34%	56
Early Childhood	19%	31
Special Education	10%	17
Special Interests*	9%	14
Career/Vocational Education	6%	10
Preservice/Inservice**	6%	9
Environmental/Science/ Social Science	6%	9
Bilingual/Migrant	4%	6
Alternative Schools	3%	5
Management***	2%	4
Adult Education	1%	2

* e.g., gifted and talented, human behavior, physical education.

** e.g., competency based teacher education.

*** e.g., computer assistance systems.

Each of the projects offered for adoption through the NDN was developed by a teacher working with students in an elementary, secondary, college or adult education setting. Each received development funds averaging $300,000 from the federal government for up to 10 years.

NDN was started with discretionary funds available through ESEA Title III in 1974; therefore, most of the initial projects entering the NDN were Title III projects. Now, however, NDN's repertoire includes federally funded projects developed under ESEA Title I, Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, Follow Through, Bureau of Adult and Vocational Education, the Teacher Corps, the National Science Foundation, the U.S. Public Health Service and the National Institute for Drug Abuse.

The NDN follows three steps to identify successful projects:

1. Local projects that have been developed with federal funds are encouraged to submit evidence of effectiveness (e.g., test score data) to a federal panel of evaluation and education experts.
2. The projects that are approved or "validated" by the panel are encouraged to apply for NDN dissemination funds.
3. NDN awards dissemination funds with the provision that at least one-half of the adoptions a project makes must take place in a state other than its own. This encourages exemplary projects to spread across state lines.

Projects that are approved by the federal panel but which do not apply for or receive dissemination funds may still participate in the NDN. The cost of adopting such a project is usually more, however, because the adopting school or district generally has to pay for travel or other expenses incurred by project personnel in providing inservice training.

How is an adoption made? The first step for a local school or district is to pinpoint exactly what problems need to be solved and which NDN projects, if any, offer a possible solution. Assistance in doing a needs assessment of this type is available from NDN "facilitators." These are people funded by the NDN and operating in each state to help potential adopters find out about, select and, if they are interested, adopt an NDN project.

To acquaint administrators, teachers and others from a local school district with NDN projects, for example, the facilitator could arrange for them to witness a demonstration of the project(s) they are interested in. The demonstration could be held in a single school or district or on a statewide basis.

When representatives of the school or district decide which project to adopt, the NDN facilitator arranges

with the director or other staff member of the selected project to provide inservice training to the teachers, administrators and others who will be implementing the project. The training, which may be conducted at the demonstration site of the chosen project or in the adopting school or district, may take from one to three days or more, either during or after school hours, on regular inservice days or on weekends or during vacation.

Once an adoption is made, the director and staff of the adopted project are "on call" and usually available to provide additional inservice training and consultation as needed to assure a successful adoption. Many of the project directors regularly schedule follow-up visits to adoption sites.

Costs: Costs are kept to a minimum because NDN's aim is to provide as much adoption assistance as possible without cost to local schools. Often, there is little or no cost involved for providing the inservice training. Usually, the adopting school or district pays for any required curriculum materials and for released time (if any) so teachers may attend training sessions. Some school districts meet adoption costs by applying appropriate federal funds such as those granted under ESEA Title I or IV-C.

What has NDN learned about offering exemplary projects and inservice training to schools? One of the main lessons, according to NDN project directors, is this: New projects cannot be imposed on schools or teachers. Administrative commitment is important, but the teachers who will be responsible for implementing new techniques and new materials must be enthusiastic about and involved in an adoption. The NDN project directors also agree that teachers cannot "go it alone" in any effort to upgrade their skills. In addition to training, teachers need long-term commitment from principals and other administrators of their schools and someone to answer questions and to provide follow-up assistance and support (e.g., the director of an adopted project).

Examples of NDN Projects

Here are brief descriptions of a sampling of NDN projects available for adoption:

Name: Utah System Approach to Individualized Learning (U-SAIL)
Location: Salt Lake City, Utah

U-SAIL, says its director, "gives teachers and administrators in any physical environment or organizational framework the tools necessary for systematic improvement." It builds skill in program planning, organization, classroom management, precision teaching and student responsibility, she adds. The project's methods are practical and personalized, with emphasis on better ways to teach basic skills.

Name: Arizona Consortium for Individualized Learning (ACIL)
Location: Mesa, Ariz.

ACIL was adapted from the Utah System Approach to Individualized Learning described above. It offers inservice training and materials to help administrators and teachers meet the individual needs of children through the use of effective classroom management techniques. The basic components of the project's inservice training include: functional use of space and time, learning centers, flexible grouping, diagnosis/prescription, how to teach concepts, daily drill, conferencing materials, commitment sheets and teaching strategies. ACIL has been effectively implemented in all types of settings: urban, suburban and rural. The project director recommends that all certified instructional staff of a school participate in the inservice training for maximum effectiveness. Administrative support is a must.

Name: ECOS Training Institute
Location: Yorktown Heights, N.Y.

ECOS assists school districts interested in learning how to infuse environmental or career education components into their curriculum. Teams of educators from a district are trained in curriculum design. To illustrate: Using a step-by-step procedure, teachers examine the basic content of their courses and incorporate environmental (or other priority) concepts, knowledge, skills, attitudes and activities into appropriate segments of their courses. If necessary, they can create a new course. Another part of the ECOS process teaches "stewardship" or how to actively involve students in the management of problems.

Name: Cognitively Oriented Pre-Primary Experience (COPE)
Location: West Chester, Pa.

COPE features a diagnostic/prescriptive approach to working with pre-primary students from low and middle-income families, including those with developmental lags and learning disabilities. Teachers learn how to use COPE's two volumes of curriculum materials to determine children's needs and how to stimulate intellectual language and socio-emotional growth. They also learn a complete management system that helps them put the project to use in their own particular teaching situation.

Name: Early Prevention of School Failure
Location: Peotone, Ill.

Adaptable for both English and Spanish-speaking children, this popular NDN project provides methods and materials for early identification and remediation of developmental learning deficiencies that could affect young children's later school performance. It offers a screening and a curriculum program as well as teacher and parent training.

Name: Positive Attitude Toward Learning
Location: Bethalto, Ill.

Consistency in teacher behavior can lead to improved attitudes among students who have a less-than-positive view of themselves or of learning. This inservice training project focuses on four complementary skills: active involvement, processes of learning, individualized instruction and improved communication and management.

Name: ACTIVE
Location: Oakhurst, N.J.

ACTIVE is a diagnostic/prescriptive physical education program that provides teachers with the skills, strategies and attitudes necessary to initiate a physical activity program for handicapped and non-handicapped individuals. This project is flexible. It may be implemented in a single class, a school or an entire district. It offers a total curriculum package that can be implemented immediately at minimal cost. It enables districts to comply with individualized education programs for handicapped students. Training enables participants to diagnose and assess pupil strengths and deficiencies and to prescribe motor, perceptual-motor, physical fitness, posture, nutrition and breathing exercises.

Name: RE-ED School of Kentucky
Location: Louisville, Ky.

RE-ED gives teachers a short-term plan to use for the re-education of emotionally disturbed children. Its objective is to enable such children to achieve enough reorganization to enable them to function more successfully in a regular classroom. The emphasis is on unlearning negative behavior patterns and learning positive ones. The project uses individualized academic and behavior change programs. It advocates meetings with parents of emotionally disturbed children to encourage positive behaviors and management on their part. An individual teacher, a school or a school system can implement the basic concepts of RE-ED.

Name: The New Model Me
Location: Lakewood, Ohio

This project offers a curriculum to help students in grades 9-12 understand the causes and consequences of behavior. The project can be implemented by one or several teachers or counselors in a school. It offers a flexible curriculum and incorporates the "causal" approach to understanding human behavior. The idea is to promote much student and teacher interaction.

Name: Positive Alternatives to Student Suspensions (PASS)
Location: St. Petersburg, Fla.

PASS provides intervention strategies designed to prevent or minimize nonproductive social behavior in secondary students. Among its major activities are the following: individual and group consultation to assist school faculties in developing techniques for dealing effectively with teen-age students; affective education and personal development programs for students and teachers; time-out rooms managed by a teacher or paraprofessional where students talk out problems and complete academic assignments; and counseling for students and parents. This project requires the leadership of a psychologist, social worker or counselor who is proficient in planning and implementing staff development programs as well as in providing direct services to students.

Name: Urban Arts Program
Location: Minneapolis, Minn.

The Urban Arts Program attempts to establish a daily working relationship among schools, community artists and arts organizations through daily student art workshops, school programs and other projects such as teacher workshops. It strives to make better use of the arts in education and of community cultural resources. Flexibility characterizes this project. Schools adopting it may follow several approaches. Some examples: the skills and talents of teachers could be put to use; artists could be brought into schools as teachers; or schools could join with communities in arts celebrations.

Name: School Health Curriculum Project
Location: San Bruno, Calif.

Three major components comprise this NDN project: a health curriculum for students in grades 5-7, a school staff training program and strategies for gaining community support for school health education. The curriculum is used currently by 400 school districts in 35 states.

Name: System for Individually Guiding Mastery Attainment (SIGMA)
Location: California State University — San Diego

SIGMA is a competency based teacher training program which focuses on enabling teacher candidates and on-the-job teachers to master a set of skills, e.g., discipline, reinforcement, role playing. Approximately 210 students have received pre-service training through SIGMA, and it has been used in inservice training with local school district personnel.

Name: Individualized Science Instruction System (ISIS)
Location: Florida State University, Tallahassee

ISIS offers 55 minicourses in bio-science, physics, chemistry, earth science, physical science, psychology and consumer economics. They are aimed at students who need a basic understanding of science but who will not be going on to higher science courses. Teachers are trained to use the minicourses in teacher-centered classrooms or for individualized instruction.

Name: Systematic Training and Measuring Mathematics (STAMM)
Location: Lakewood, Colo.

STAMM makes available to teachers a complete mathematics curriculum for students in kindergarten through trigonometry, including alternative high school courses. A continuous progress approach to mathematics for a student's entire math career, STAMM stresses careful monitoring of student progress, measurement of mathematics competencies and high school alternatives. STAMM does not dictate teaching style and may be used in any classroom setting. Its guides, tests and workbooks may be used by a single teacher or an entire school system. The director notes, however, that the more levels involved in implementation, the greater the gains from the continuous progress aspects of STAMM. Teachers are trained to use STAMM materials; weekly or monthly meetings for staff members are recommended.

Name: Individualized Language Arts (ILA)
Location: Weehawken, N.J.

A district with a definite commitment to improving basic writing skills of all students will want to investigate this project. It combines a "language-experience" approach with techniques derived from modern linguistic theory to enhance skills in written composition. Teachers learn to evaluate students' writing samples and to assign priorities to class and individual writing assignments. A teacher's resource manual prescribes a variety of writing and rewriting techniques for all content areas involving writing. A recordkeeping system permits students, teachers, administrators and parents to observe growth in writing proficiency from month to month and grade to grade. ILA can be combined readily with existing language arts curricula and objectives.

Name: Alphaphonics
Location: South San Francisco, Calif.

Three teachers collaborated to develop this reading readiness training project. They describe it as a "26-week success oriented reading project employing an organized phonics system." Cited as one of 13 exemplary reading programs by the National Right To Read effort, Alphaphonics can be implemented in a typical classroom using regular teachers.

Name: Project Catch-Up
Location: Newport Beach, Calif.

Offering a laboratory approach, Project Catch-Up is designed to provide remedial laboratory instruction in reading and math to K-8 students who test in the lowest quartile. Developed under ESEA Title I, Catch-Up encourages classroom and laboratory teachers to work closely together to identify program participants and to formulate a laboratory schedule that does not cause any child to miss reading or math in the regular classroom. Individual needs of students are identified by means of diagnostic teaching; materials are selected from a wide range of high-interest resources available in the laboratory to meet each student's needs.

Name: Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI)
Location: Salt Lake City, Utah

ECRI advocates a highly structured approach to teaching reading and language skills. The director of ECRI identified critical teacher behaviors essential to preventing reading failure, and the project provides inservice training for teachers based on the research findings. The essential behaviors include: eliciting correct responses from non-responding pupils, establishing high mastery levels of responses, correlating language arts activities to increase responses and save time, using effective management and monitoring systems.

Name: PEGASUS-PACE
Location: Tuscaloosa, Ala.; Princeton, Ill.

PEGASUS-PACE seeks to accelerate students' reading achievement and to help classroom teachers enhance their effectiveness through a locally developed, personalized program of continuous learning. The curriculum consists of performance objectives and corresponding diagnostic instruments for 17 sequential reading levels (K-8). The project is compatible with any organizational staff arrangement such as open-space, nongraded or self-contained classrooms. Teachers may continue to use any strategies they have found successful.

Name: Project R-3
Location: San Jose, Calif.

Readiness, relevancy and reinforcement are the fundamentals of this motivational basic skills project for grade 7-9 students of all ability levels. R-3's curriculum interrelates reading and mathematics. It supplies reinforcement through gaming and simulation, parent involvement and an inservice training program for staff development. The project director says teachers must learn team planning for effective implementation, and all staff members must develop expertise in gaming/simulation.

Name: Reading/English Rotation Project
Location: Thomson, Ga.

Students in grades 6-9 are taught reading skills in a "rotating classroom approach," and teachers learn team teaching techniques. Over a period of nine years, students averaged one month's growth in reading per month of instruction as measured by standardized achievement tests. Prior to the start of the project, average achievement was 2.65 years in six years of schooling. Here's how the project works: A "rotation" group of 60 students is divided into small, flexible groups of 6 to 10. Students move to three different classrooms during a two-period time block of one hour and 50 minutes. Different skills and various activities are emphasized in each classroom. The approach requires team teaching and the integration of basic communications skills, as opposed to a "pull-out" model.

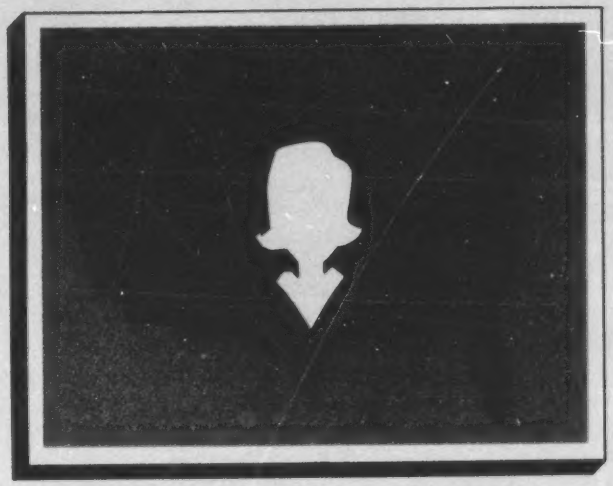
Name: Reading Power in the Content Area
Location: Minneapolis, Minn.

This staff development project was designed to help content area teachers minimize the gap between student reading abilities and reading requirements of printed instructional materials. To reach that goal, the project developed teacher training materials and vocational student reading-support materials. Teachers learn to use formal and informal tests and inventories to assess student reading abilities, to analyze the reading levels of printed instructional materials and to modify printed materials to fit student reading abilities. The project was originally developed for use in vocational programs whose students (grades 11 and 12) represented a broad range of ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds.

For more information about the NDN or a listing of NDN facilitators and projects, contact the Division of Educational Replication, U.S. Office of Education, Room 3616, 7th and D Sts., S.W., Washington, D.C. 20201 (phone: 202/245-2243).

CHAPTER VIII

Teacher Centers



One of the fastest growing recent developments in education is the teacher center. Currently, there are about 4,000 to 5,000 teacher centers nationwide, depending on the definition of "center." It may be no center at all — just a group of people who spend all of their time training teachers and other school personnel. In rural areas, particularly, "change agents," modeled after agricultural county agents, do the work of a center. On the other hand, some teacher centers are large operations.

Administrators and school board members need to become familiar with the philosophy, goals and operation of teacher centers for several reasons. For one thing, many centers already exist; more seem likely. Secondly, teachers generally approve of and will participate in improvement programs offered through the centers. Finally, many currently employed teachers have already met all certification requirements; teacher centers offer them and their districts a way to keep up with current research and development and to combat problems such as teacher burnout.

Most teacher centers started without benefit of federal support; most still operate that way. Teachers interested in starting centers have used all sorts of strategies. In some places, teachers canvassed local businesses for scrap materials to get their center started and to get business leaders interested. Vermont teachers showed movies at the center site, charging 50 cents admittance to generate funds.

There is no easy way to describe a "typical" teacher center. Some are well established; others are brand new. Some serve a specific group of teachers; others try to meet the needs of all instructional personnel. Some were started with the blessing of the district administrators; others were loosely organized by teachers who wanted a place to develop curriculum materials.

Here's how several teacher center directors described their centers:

"We provide continuity of space and time, and a staff available to a teacher to work on an individualized problem, either in the teacher's school or in a separate place.

"The graduate courses at the university are geared to advancing the teacher out of the classroom — becoming a reading specialist or a learning disabilities specialist or some sort of administrator. Teacher centers are dedicated to helping teachers stay in the classroom and experience their work as important, stimulating, less fragmented and less isolated. Instead of emphasizing specialities and separateness, we try to nurture a whole approach toward teaching and help teachers collaborate with each other. . . ."

A review of the *Teachers' Centers Directory Supplement* of 55 centers, published by the federally supported Teachers' Centers Exchange, reveals that almost 60 percent of the 55 centers were established after 1976. Most occupy space provided by the school district. Most offer credit courses, but do not charge fees for their services or materials. Several occupy space made available by colleges and universities. In a few of the centers, the director's salary is paid by the school district.

Some of the centers listed in the *Supplement* focus on a specific purpose: serving teachers of gifted children (The Teacher Center for Teachers of the Gifted and Talented, New York); serving bilingual teachers (Teachers' Co-operative, La Jolla, Calif.); serving only secondary school teachers (The English High Teachers' Center, Boston); serving teachers of the handicapped (Teacher Center for Handicapped Children, Gillett, Wis.); serving teachers of Indian chil-

dren (Little Wound Teacher Center, Kyle, S.D.); providing teachers with expertise in graphics and audiovisuals (Instructional Production Center, Upper Darby, Pa.); serving teachers of the arts (The Touchstone Center, New York City). Four centers serve teachers in Jewish schools.

The centers usually serve the needs of elementary and secondary teachers, but some provide services to administrators and other school personnel, parents and even children.

The centers are supported by a variety of funding. Some were organized with ESEA Title I and IV-C moneys; several grew out of Teacher Corps projects; others depended on foundations, school district funds and university assistance.

In Bristol, Conn., space is provided by the board of education and finances by the Bristol Federation of Teachers. The Bristol Teacher Center is the only one of the 55 described in the *Supplement* that resulted from contract negotiations between the teachers union and the school board.

Florida centers described in the book are beneficiaries of the 1973 Florida Teacher Education Act. It mandated that every county in the state must encourage a coordinated inservice training effort among the local school systems, teachers, community and the local teacher education facility. Florida teacher centers operating under this mandate receive $1 per student for planning in-school staff development activities and $5 per student for implementing inservice activities. Some of the Florida centers serve not only teachers but also administrators, supervisors, bus drivers, aides, volunteers, counselors, kitchen workers, custodians and secretaries — all of whom participate on a voluntary basis on school time. Examples of such centers include Osceola Teacher Education Center (Kissimee) and Sarasota County Teacher Education Center.

Several other centers described in the *Supplement* claim to serve parents. At least one — the Teaching Learning Center, Saxtons River, Vt. — serves children. It is the home of the "Childcycle," a large collection of recycled materials gathered from businesses throughout the state. Children use the center extensively during the day to devise projects with the cycle materials. Their products are added to the "gallery of ideas" which teachers examine when they visit the center. Another center with a recycling component is the Teacher Resource Center, Boise, Idaho. Members say their recycling activity, called the "Serendipity Volunteer Center," aims to become the "central scrounge agent for 1,300 teachers."

One center described in the *Supplement* is not a site at all, but a specially designed, self-contained mobile unit which travels around San Diego County, Calif., to schools which request and prepare for it. All school personnel, grades K-12, participate in this traveling Teaching Learning Center. The mobile unit came into being in response to school districts' requests for services located closer to their schools.

Note: An updated directory of teacher centers will be available from the Teachers' Centers Exchange in early 1980. For more information, contact the Exchange at the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1855 Folsom St., San Francisco, Calif. 94103.

Federally Funded Teacher Centers

The federal government funded 60 teacher center projects in 1978 and an additional 29 in 1979. The projects support nearly 130 separate teacher centers and serve approximately 100,000 teachers in 150 school systems.

The authorization for teacher centers comes under Title V of the Higher Education Act. The regulations governing the program state that 10 percent of the funds appropriated for the teacher center program must be used for grants to institutions of higher education. Another 10 percent goes to state education agencies. They review and approve applications and provide technical and dissemination aid to the centers. The remainder of the appropriation goes to local education agencies. The National Teacher Center budget for fiscal year 1980 totaled $13 million, with about $8.4 million of that going to local districts. Teacher Center Program Director Allen Schmieder said only one-year planning grants for teacher centers would be considered in 1980 because of a shortage of funds.

Currently funded teacher centers receive amounts ranging from $20,000 to $850,000. Their service areas vary in size from entire states to a small island with three schools, from heavily populated urban areas to sparsely populated rural areas.

Some of the federally funded centers focus on specialized needs like the problems of the handicapped; others cover every subject in the school curriculum. Some are located in large modern buildings or occupy entire "abandoned" schools; others are in portable buildings, storefronts, basements and delivery vans.

Although the program's mandate does not require special attention to minority groups, 17 projects are located in the nation's 25 largest metropolitan areas and have sizable Hispanic populations in their service areas; three work with native American populations.

Questions and Answers

Most teachers think that federally sponsored teacher centers are the best thing that ever happened in inser-

vice education. By federal fiat, teachers have the most say in governing the federally funded centers; they can design the programs they want, pick the teachers they need (often from among their own ranks), and get fast and flexible training and service close to where they live and work.

Some administrators, on the other hand, view the movement in a cautious and, sometimes, uneasy way. Some administrators have expressed concern about how the centers will affect district curriculum goals, their own service programs and the policies of the school board. Such attitudes are "unfortunate" and not wholly typical of administrators around the country, said Charles Lovett, project officer for the National Teacher Center Program in Washington, D.C. In an interview for this **Critical Issues Report,** Lovett answered other questions about federally funded teacher centers:

Q. Are administrators supportive of the centers?

A. Lovett said there are examples of "lots of people like the New York principal who thinks the teacher center in his town is the greatest thing since fried eggs." He cited other examples of administrative push to further the movement, such as the support of teacher centers by some districts long before passage of federal legislation. Some used district inservice funds or grants from foundations, businesses, industry and community organizations. In some instances, Lovett added, several school districts joined together to form a teacher center.

Q. Will federally sponsored teacher centers compete with regular district programs of inservice education?

A. Lovett explained that the regulations governing federally funded teacher centers explicitly state that a center must not supplant regular inservice training. "Meshing of goals is an influential factor in deciding who will get grants," he added. Lovett believes that staff development is a major need of school districts and "there's plenty of room for everybody. More is better," he noted, "because there is so little." Further, he added, a school administrator in a district with a successful teacher center in operation "would be foolish to ignore its success."

Q. Should released time be provided for teachers to attend the centers?

A. Lovett said "contractual relations are none of our [the federal government's] business." He believes, however, that districts legitimately can hire substitutes for teachers who want to use the center. After all, Lovett said, the school district is gong to get something out of the teachers' training.

Q. Should district or teacher needs be met?

A. Many centers, Lovett noted, use school district and teacher center needs assessments to find out what both should be doing. "There's surprising congruence in what the federal government, state departments of education and school districts, as well as teachers, see as major education problems," according to the federal spokesman. In some cases, he noted, the whole school establishment is faced with solving a single education problem. An example is the federal requirement of mainstreaming handicapped children. In such cases, teachers and administrators do not disagree on the focus of the teacher center offerings.

Lovett cited the example of the Camden (Me.) Teacher Center. It concentrates primarily on handicapped children by keeping track of local practices and giving teachers access to abstracts, files and listings. Through such a system, Lovett explains, the teacher who "inherits" a handicapped child can seek out another teacher who had the child earlier to learn what programs were used, how the child responded and what progress was made.

Q. Should a teacher center comply with school district goals or develop its own goals?

A. Lovett countered with this remark: "If the teacher center wants to do something different from the school district, why should it be a problem? The district provides staff development for what it has determined are the teachers' needs. Why not do both?"

Q. How do centers locate expert staff?

A. Teachers themselves usually are the experts who conduct teacher center programs. "Teachers have a lot of expertise," Lovett said, "and the proportion of teachers with master's degrees and doctorates is growing, as is the number of teacher-to-teacher linkages." As an example, the federal spokesman cited a teacher center in Oregon that is developing a computer file to keep track of inservice opportunities for teachers and the resource people who can best provide specific kinds of training.

Q. What about the criticism that teacher centers typically do not involve high school teachers?

A. A change is under way, Lovett said. He explained that under the federal legislation, teacher centers are authorized to grant small amounts of money to a group of teachers who want to undertake a project that they devise. This idea is attracting more and more

secondary teachers to teacher centers. High school teachers have worked together, for example, in improving an English program. Lovett described these projects as serious curriculum work which benefits both the teachers involved and the center sponsoring their work. "All teachers want to do their jobs better, and it doesn't take much to motivate them," Lovett concluded.

Q. Is governance of teacher centers a problem?

A. Lovett admitted that governance problems may arise at the local level resulting, for example, in a conflict between the policy board of the center and the school board. He pointed out, however, that federal regulations clearly state that grants to teacher centers are "dependent on a relationship of goodwill and trust."

The policy board of a teacher center must include at least two representatives of the school district, one representative of the college or school of education in the area served, and a majority of teachers. The teacher makeup of the board must be representative of the district to be served, including vocational education teachers, special education teachers and nonpublic school teachers.

Q. Are the teachers who are involved in teacher centers mainly union activists?

A. At the national level, the NEA and AFT have been strongly involved for almost a decade in the teacher center movement. Similarly, local teacher activists and association leaders tend to be active on center policy boards. "The reason is because they are interested in their profession," Lovett said. In no sense is the teacher center considered a "haven" for association or union activists, he emphasized. "If that were borne out by the facts, they'd have a hard time with us [federal officials]."

Q. What are the chances for longevity of the federally funded centers?

A. The centers are not dependent upon a single person as are some federal programs, Lovett said, "so you do not have panic setting in when a charismatic leader leaves." The policy board hires the director and, typically, the director will not be the person who initiated the center idea in the first place, the federal official said. Policy boards, he noted, tend to follow local hiring practices. Although the teacher center legislation does not require local districts to take over when the federal money ends, Lovett believes the centers will continue. He said the centers' practice of bringing together school systems, universities, teachers and teacher organizations ensures that some sort of activity based on this cooperation will continue.

Pros and Cons of Teacher Centers

Patricia and Drea Zigarmi, both long active in the teacher center movement, interviewed 73 school administrators in 1978 to obtain their views of teacher centers. The interviews took place in 11 cities where 12 "typical" teacher centers had existed for 2 to 15 years, and where there appeared to be a "successful" relationship between the center and the school district.

Positive Comments

Here are some of the positive comments of administrators:

- "The teacher center is a support system for the instructional staff. It allows staff members to raise concerns or come in with a particular problem and have someone listen and identify resources that can help."
- "The center enables teachers to make homemade materials which tend to be more effective because teachers have a particular purpose in mind when they make them."
- "With a lack of money in the district to purchase materials, it's amazing what materials the center can provide free."
- "The teacher center breaks down competition among teachers and helps them learn to build on each other's ideas."
- "The activities teachers engage in at the center may not be as important as the opportunity to appreciate each other's expertise."
- "The teacher center breaks down subject matter boundaries between teachers and improves the morale and cohesiveness of the faculty."
- "The teacher center helps reduce the social isolation of the teacher."
- "We have probably retained individual teachers in the district because they felt the center gave them support and allowed them to grow professionally. In the classroom, they've done very creative work because they've had that outside support."
- "The workshops at the center seem to be less formal, less directive, more intimate than school district inservice training."
- "The staff members of the center come out of the school to observe or work with teachers who are having problems. Often, I'll arrange a three-way conference with a staff member from the teacher center, the teacher and myself."

- "The teacher center trained all the substitutes in the district this year. Teachers worked with them at the center on discipline and management concerns."
- "The teacher center is a training ground for teacher leaders in staff development. A number of teachers lead small workshops there, get their feet on the ground and feel more secure about branching out and offering their expertise to others."

Negative Comments

Not all of the comments from administrators were positive and supportive. Among their concerns were the following:

- "The center may have attracted a group of teachers who have coalesced into a clique and, as a result, the center may be sort of exclusive."
- "Some of the things the center encourages teachers to do may take time away from the regular curriculum."
- "I don't know where the line will be, but somewhere down the road I'll start to become concerned about where the activities of the center begin to encroach on my job. At this point, I see it as a supplemental service, a legitimate alternative that doesn't threaten the inservice activities my office is likely to provide."
- "The teacher center seems to want to work with us (administrators) and yet be free of us."
- "I don't think the center is accountable to anyone."
- "The center may need to be decentralized to be effective. How many teachers will drive an hour after school to use it?"
- "The teacher center doesn't provide the kinds of training — abstract, verbal and analytical — that secondary teachers seem to like and can profit from."
- "Most people in teacher centers don't understand the change process. To create a humane environment in a school, you can't leave out any significant group. For that reason, teacher centers must involve school administrators. Principals should be the target of teacher centers. The centers should understand that the principal, more than the staff of the center, has a great deal to do with setting the educational philosophy and tone of the school."

Summing up the pluses and minuses expressed in the study, the researchers said administrators with firsthand knowledge understand the goals and purposes of teacher centers very well and value them for their services. The researchers said they were "struck" by the few expressed concerns, most of which related to the centers' non-bureaucratic operating style, their lack of accessibility to certain teachers or groups of teachers and to a possible duplication of school district services.

Administrators also worried about what they perceived to be a lack of administrative participation in and control of the governance procedures of the federally funded centers. Many felt that the policy boards of the centers would come into direct conflict with school boards. They also were concerned that the teacher center might become a local arena for political (union) action.

The researchers recommended that teacher center policy boards should pay more attention to administrators as potential clients. Few centers, they said, are making possible the active involvement of administrators in the change or renewal activities promoted by the centers. And, they added, administrators rarely perceive teacher centers as important vehicles for implementing district goals, even though the work at the center may be substantially related to those goals and priorities.

Teacher center leaders and participating teachers, the Zigarmis concluded, must show administrators the unique form of staff development taking place in teacher centers.

Case Study: Amherst, Mass. A Teacher Center in Action

The Amherst Area (Mass.) Teacher Center had a lot going for it when it opened with federal funding in 1978: an education-minded community, a supportive superintendent and school committee (school board), a working relationship with the School of Education of the University of Massachusetts, access to five colleges in the area, many successful experiences with federal programs in the 1970s and a recent history of teachers working together voluntarily on curriculum design and staff improvement.

"When the national teacher center legislation came along, it was right down our alley," said Supt. Donald Frizzle in an interview for this report. "We could build on what was already started here."

Another plus, according to Frizzle: Harmony existed between the school district administration and the Amherst-Pelham Teachers' Association (APTA). Frizzle says the local association always has been highly organized and has had a say in working conditions, predating collective bargaining. "Things are not dramatically different now although perhaps more formalized."

Policy making: Representatives of APTA sit on the teacher center policy board, and the president of

APTA helped to write the proposal for the federal grant.

Three district administrators and two school committee members also sit on the board and can bring school district concerns vis-a-vis staff development to the attention of other board members. Likewise, teachers on the board can air their views on necessary inservice education.

The center's policy board is broader and bigger than those governing many other teacher centers. It includes a representative from private schools in the district and teacher representatives from different school districts which feed students into Amherst Junior High School. Also represented on the board is the Hampshire Educational Collaborative involving 11 school districts in Hampshire County. The collaborative sponsors a variety of educational programs in the area, including vocational and special education.

The policy board consists of three administrators, two school committee members, two persons from private schools, 15 teachers elected by APTA, one person from the University of Massachusetts, one person from the Springfield regional office of the Massachusetts State Department of Education and one person from the educational collaborative.

Setting goals for the center: Some of the fears school administrators sometimes express about teacher centers simply have not surfaced in Amherst. Take school district goals vs. teacher center goals, for example. Frizzle met with about 25 church, civic and business groups several years ago to find out what citizens felt the schools should be accomplishing. The community, he reported to the school committee, wanted schools to aim toward four goals: (1) educate students for lifelong learning, (2) teach them basic skills, (3) help them to understand and value themselves and (4) prepare them for future work or education. The goals, he says, form the framework for the district's curriculum.

Merrita Hruska, director of the teacher center, describes how Amherst teachers arrived at their goals. Beginning in 1975, a volunteer group of the district's junior and senior high school teachers and administrators conducted formalized needs assessments with the staff of each school. They found that teachers needed: more help with writing skills; more help in easing transitions of students within a classroom, within a school, between junior and senior high school, between high school and a job or further education; help in development of multicultural curriculum and eliminating sex stereotyping; and more knowledge about children entering and going through adolescence. In the second year, teachers said they needed more training in leadership and decision making.

"There haven't been wide differences between what teachers perceive as a need and what the school district sees as necessary," Hruska says.

'Inservice Training Instead of Textbooks'

Amherst Administrator Defines Success

What accounts for the success of the Amherst Area Teacher Center?

Assistant Supt. Ronald E. Bell, one of three district administrators on the center's policy board, lists the following reasons:

- "We agree with the intent of the federal teacher center legislation: Teachers must have a major role in staff development."
- "We've had a collaborative relationship for a long time with the university, the colleges, other surrounding school districts and the staff itself."
- "When people say, 'Schools ought to be run more like a business,' they should realize that business learned a long time ago what schools are still learning — to succeed, you have to continually upgrade employee skills. The public often doesn't see staff development as an important activity for schools. The school committee will spend $10,000 for a new series of textbooks, rather than spend that same money to increase the skills of teachers so they can decide if those textbooks are the resource that is really needed." Amherst is emphasizing staff development.
- "Our teacher center is emphasizing skills that will enable staff members to improve what happens with kids."

The Amherst center does not carry the entire inservice burden for the district. It continues, however, to direct and fund programs the school committee regards as "crucially important," the superintendent says. Two examples of this type of inservice activity: Helping elementary teachers to upgrade their skills in math and helping secondary school teachers with writing skills.

Staffing: The Amherst Area Teacher Center staff consists of Hruska as director, an inservice coordinator who designs courses and locates resources, a full-time administrative assistant, an aide and a secretary. Hruska notes that many centers "get into trouble" because they don't have enough staff. "To do the kinds of things we had in mind," she says, "I felt we needed a larger staff. Also, I did not want to be bogged down at my desk in administrative detail any more than necessary."

Hruska says she and her staff are "in the schools a lot," making contact with teachers. "The farther away you get from the classroom with either materials or human resources, the less chance there is of the center being used," she says.

Traditionally, secondary school teachers have not been as involved as elementary teachers in teacher centers. That's not true, however, in Amherst. Hruska, who has taught at every level from preschool to high school, advises: "Don't start with the differences between elementary and secondary school teachers and don't insist that all high school teachers care about is subject matter." She explains that when Amherst surveyed district teachers to pinpoint their needs, high school teachers were as interested in getting help on classroom management as were their elementary school colleagues. In addition, she says, high school teachers put high priority on the need to learn more about ways to reach the pre-adolescent and the adolescent student.

Amherst High School teachers also were interested in the teacher center because the district requires them to be active in curriculum development. In fact, says Hruska, the voluntary work on staff development completed by the teachers and administrators led directly to their successful efforts to win a federal teacher center grant.

Staffing: Teachers teaching teachers has been a major tenet of the teacher center movement and in Amherst, as elsewhere, the center has discovered a wealth of talent within its own ranks of teachers and administrators. "So often," says Frizzle, "the staff will have the needed expertise, but school boards and citizens say, 'There's a person over at Yale or over in the next town who can help us.' "

"Teacher centers uncover who you have inside the system rather than in the next town," the teacher center director adds. Ironically, she says, "some Amherst teachers had been asked to do demonstration teaching in neighboring school districts but had never been asked to do so on their own turf. That is, not until the teacher center was started."

Another plus: Teacher centers are helpful in encouraging leadership roles among elementary school teachers, "who tend not to push themselves onto center stage," the superintendent adds.

Teachers are not the only ones who are involved in the Amherst center. Of 22 administrators in the district, 20 have been involved in center activities — either as teachers, learners, members of the policy board or in working with the school-based inservice teams. At least one school board member taught a course offered by the center.

The center in operation: The Amherst center offers dozens of courses, seminars and workshops either in the schools, the center itself, the university or local hotels. In addition, it offers minigrants to teachers who want to take on an inservice project. Examples of minigrants include:

- Development of a work station in the high school to teach printing to special education students.
- Development of a curriculum kit on Asian Americans' contribution to American culture.
- Development of a system for evaluating the preschool screening process.

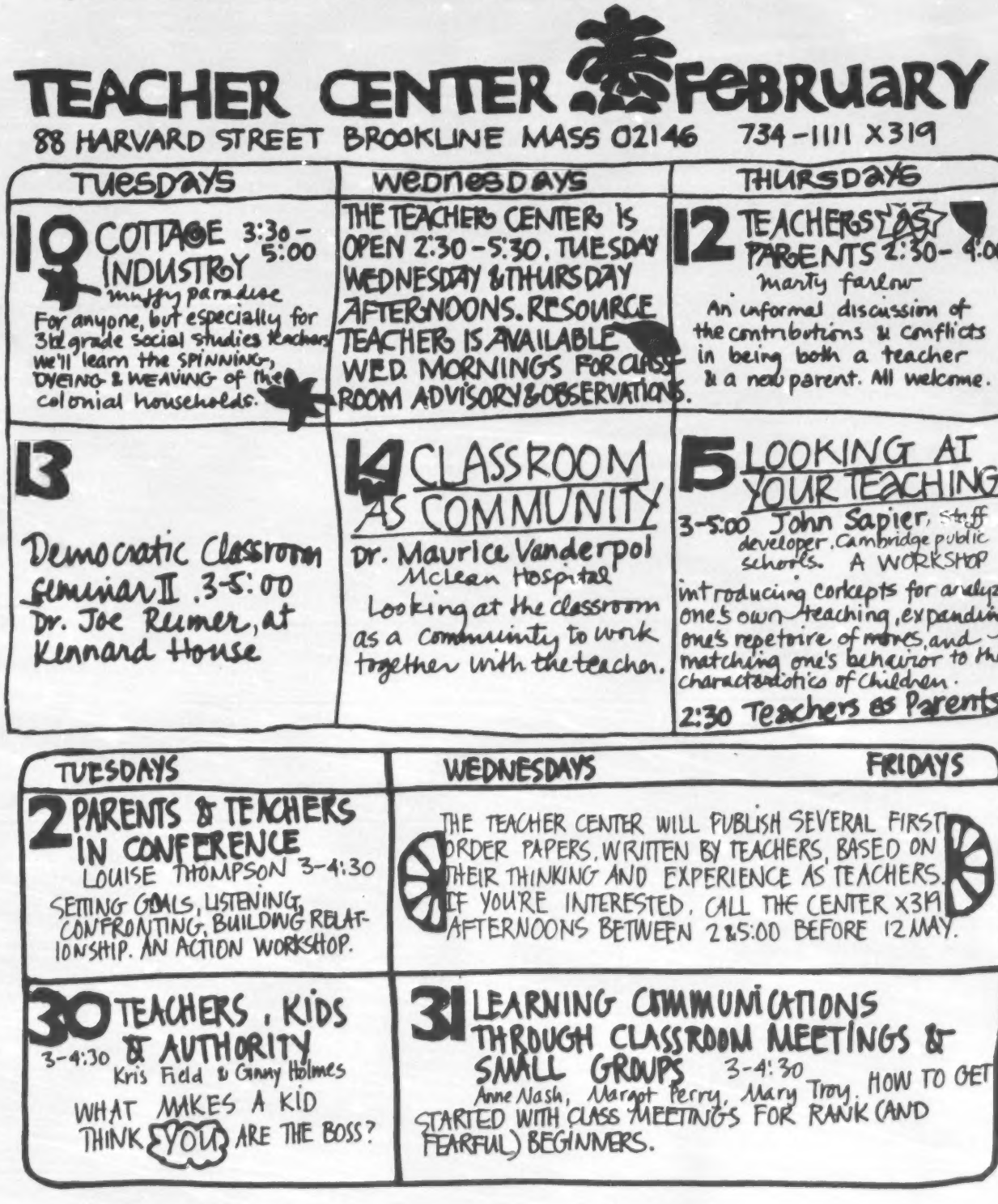
The minigrants average about $200 per person. They can be used by teachers for activities such as visiting other schools, attending national or state conventions, devising a special project or engaging in graduate coursework. All approved proposals are reported to the entire teaching staff in the center's newspaper. Applications for minigrants are evaluated on the basis of criteria established by the center's policy board, including the following: the proposal must meet teacher center objectives; project objectives and related activities must be sharply defined and clearly stated; the major outcomes must be defined in relation to student needs; provisions must be made for sharing the results; and the estimated cost must be reasonable in relation to the anticipated results.

Note: Both the superintendent and the director of the teacher center advise that any district interested in using the minigrant idea should tie the grants to center or district goals.

Location and funding: Prior to the approval of the federal grant for the teacher center, the district had consolidated many services (libraries, TV equipment,

What Goes On at a Teacher Center?

Here are examples of the types of activities sponsored by the Brookline (Mass.) Teacher Center taken from the center's calendar of activities for three months:


TEACHER CENTER FEBRUARY
88 HARVARD STREET BROOKLINE MASS 02146 734-1111 X319
TUESDAYS
WEDNESDAYS
THURSDAYS
10 COTTAGE INDUSTRY 3:30-5:00
muffy paradise
For anyone, but especially for 3rd grade social studies teachers we'll learn the SPINNING, DYEING & WEAVING of the colonial households.
THE TEACHERS CENTER IS OPEN 2:30-5:30, TUESDAY WEDNESDAY & THURSDAY AFTERNOONS. RESOURCE TEACHER IS AVAILABLE WED. MORNINGS FOR CLASSROOM ADVISORY & OBSERVATIONS.
12 TEACHERS & PARENTS 2:30-4:00
marty farlow
An informal discussion of the contributions & conflicts in being both a teacher & a new parent. All welcome.
13
Democratic Classroom Seminar II, 3-5:00
Dr. Joe Reimer, at Kennard House
14 CLASSROOM AS COMMUNITY
Dr. Maurice Vanderpol
McLean Hospital
Looking at the classroom as a community to work together with the teacher.
15 LOOKING AT YOUR TEACHING
3-5:00 John Sapier, staff developer, Cambridge public schools. A WORKSHOP introducing concepts for analyzing one's own teaching, expanding one's repetoire of moves, and matching one's behavior to the characteristics of children.
2:30 Teachers as Parents
TUESDAYS
WEDNESDAYS
FRIDAYS
2 PARENTS & TEACHERS IN CONFERENCE
LOUISE THOMPSON 3-4:30
SETTING GOALS, LISTENING, CONFRONTING, BUILDING RELATIONSHIP. AN ACTION WORKSHOP.
THE TEACHER CENTER WILL PUBLISH SEVERAL FIRST ORDER PAPERS, WRITTEN BY TEACHERS, BASED ON THEIR THINKING AND EXPERIENCE AS TEACHERS. IF YOU'RE INTERESTED, CALL THE CENTER X319 AFTERNOONS BETWEEN 2&5:00 BEFORE 12 MAY.
30 TEACHERS, KIDS & AUTHORITY
3-4:30
Kris Field & Ginny Holmes
WHAT MAKES A KID THINK YOU ARE THE BOSS?
31 LEARNING COMMUNICATIONS THROUGH CLASSROOM MEETINGS & SMALL GROUPS 3-4:30
Anne Nash, Margot Perry, Mary Troy. HOW TO GET STARTED WITH CLASS MEETINGS FOR RANK (AND FEARFUL) BEGINNERS.

printing and repair equipment), formerly housed in seven different schools, into one central resource center. The teacher center is located in the same building.

Federal funding to start the center totaled $129,000. District administrators are aware that funding for the center "may dry up" after three years. But, they say, "we intend to keep our process of cooperation and collaboration moving."

Assistant Supt. Ronald E. Bell adds that the Amherst center is bringing together parties "in a way that hasn't happened in the past, and these people are building a commitment to staff development that hopefully will allow the collaboration to continue when the federal well runs dry."

For more information, contact Donald Frizzle, Superintendent, Amherst Public Schools, Chestnut St., Amherst, Mass. 01002.

Mini-Descriptions of Teacher Centers

Administrators and board members interested in learning more about teacher center operations might like to call or visit any of the following centers. Note that several are federally funded; others are supported by district funds or other sources. Reportedly, all have the backing of the administration in the district in which they operate.

The Teacher Center
Walnut Grove School
1248 N. Florissant Rd.
Ferguson, Mo. 63135

Director: Sally Caldwell
Phone: 314/595-2369

Serving as the staff development program for the Ferguson-Florissant School District, this suburban St. Louis center trains instructional aides and substitute teachers for the classroom teachers who are attending center programs. It coordinates the district's curriculum renewal effort by working with systemwide and building-level improvement committees. Started in 1975 with ESEA Title III and district funding, the center now receives most of its funding from the district.

West Irondequoit Teacher Center
Oakview School
2400 Oakview Dr.
Rochester, N.Y. 14617

Director: Virginia Buchman
Phone: 716/266-7351

Two years of planning led to the opening of this center in August 1979. It is under the direction of an 18-member policy board and is funded by the West Irondequoit School District, with partial support from the (federal) Emergency School Aid Act. Occupying four rooms in a suburban school, the center schedules workshops and seminars requested by teachers. It is starting to develop a library and materials resource center.

Teaching Learning Center
428 West Blvd.
Charlotte, N.C. 28203

Director: Deane Crowell
Phone: 704/376-0122

The Teaching Learning Center is one component of a comprehensive staff development program. It was established by the Charlotte-Mecklenburg School District in the fall of 1976 as part of a decentralization effort, and the district pays for its upkeep. Services are free to K-12 teachers, administrators, students, community workers and volunteers in the area. Workshops offered through the center are eligible for certification renewal credit and the district's incentive pay program.

Washington West Resource Center
Old Post Office
RFD #1, Box 172N
Waitsfield, Vt. 05673

Director: Wade Scherer
Phone: 802/496-3090

An outgrowth of a federally funded alternative teacher training program in the early 1970s, this center is housed in an old post office building. It serves teachers from more than four school districts as well as community members. Among the offerings: adult education courses for graduate credit and recertification; workshops and community forums; advisory work with teachers in the classroom and at the center on topics such as curriculum and classroom manage-

ment. Teachers may receive incentive grants to develop curriculum. A van service delivers materials to districts outside the center's home district, the Washington West Supervisory Union. The center, which is federally funded, also sponsors a summer institute comprised of graduate classes in areas determined by the policy board.

North Shore Education Center, Inc.
25 Sohier Rd.
Beverly, Mass. 01915

Director: Philip C. Sweeney
Phone: 617/922-0071

This center is run by an independent nonprofit corporation in space donated by the Beverly Public Schools. Members pay an annual membership fee of $15. Originally started in 1969 by three teachers and four school committee (school board) members, the center serves mostly teachers of students in preschool to grade 8 and community groups.

Arlington Heights Teacher Center
Ridge School
800 N. Fernandez
Arlington Heights, Ill. 60004

Director: H. James Montgomery
Phone: 312/398-4287

Approximately 10 workshops per month are held by the center during regular school hours for K-8 teachers from the 5,500-student Arlington Heights Elementary School District. Supported by the Board of Education since 1973, the center occupies three converted classrooms in a centrally located elementary building. In addition to workshops, the center offers individual and small group consultation on curriculum development and other areas, building-level consultation and extension courses from two universities.

Pittsford Teacher Center
Thornell Rd. School
Thornell Rd.
Pittsford, N.Y. 14534

Director: Wanda L. Ward
Phone: 716/381-9940

"The basic philosophy of the Pittsford Teacher Center is to encourage teachers to take responsibility for their own personal and professional development," says the center's director. Participants are mainly elementary teachers, but secondary teacher involvement is growing. Administrators participate in center-sponsored workshops and teach some of them. Examples of activities: recycling learning materials, a professional library and volunteer core of parents who aid teachers in making materials for the classroom. Center staff work with the district's subject area coordinators in providing demonstration classes for teachers to visit. Three released-time workshops were provided in 1978-79 pertaining to the education of gifted and talented students and mainstreamed students. The district funds the center.

Murdock Teacher Center
670 N. Edgemoor
Wichita, Kans. 67208

Director: Allen W. Mills
Phone: 316/682-1565

Housed in a 14-room former elementary school which was closed in 1973, this center offers courses, workshops, seminars and study groups to 27 school districts surrounding the Wichita Unified School District #259. Started with ESEA Title IV-C funds, the center is now supported by the district general budget. The director says the center often is called upon to help schools plan and facilitate faculty inservice programs. Most activities are free, except for minimal charges for some workshops and materials and for university graduate courses.

Detroit Center for Professional Growth
and Development
469 College of Education
Wayne State University
Detroit, Mich. 48202

Director: Jessie Kennedy
Phone: 313/577-1684

"The overall goal of the center," says the director, "is to raise pupil achievement and to provide supportive functions and services which will contribute to the professional growth of users of the center." It also aims to cooperate with other educational institutions and organizations, develop educational leadership and disseminate information about successful programs and projects. The center is housed at Wayne State University in inner-city Detroit, but it is part of the Detroit Public Schools. It receives support from the state and the district.

Las Cruces Teachers' Center
301 W. Amador
Las Cruces, N. Mex. 88001

Director: Sharon S. Meier
Phone: 505/526-9400

Teachers in all 24 elementary and secondary schools in Las Cruces use this center as do university students, substitute teachers and church school workers. Courses accredited by New Mexico State University are held at the center, with participants paying regular university fees. Certain classes developed by the center are available for recertification credit as well as salary schedule increments. Funding for the center is provided by the Las Cruces School District. Two teachers, encouraged by Supt. John E. Stablein, began the center. It, in turn, was instrumental in organizing the New Mexico network of teacher centers.

Grand Forks Teacher's Center
2110 Library Circle
Grand Forks, N. Dak. 58201

Co-coordinators: Helen King and Cindy Johnston
Phone: 701/772-1462

Educators in 27 schools make use of this center, which offers workshops, seminars and an occasional graduate credit class arranged through the University of North Dakota. Individual requests for classroom materials are filled, and center personnel make periodic visits to area schools. Originally started in 1977 with funds provided by the Grand Forks School District and the Bush Foundation, the center is now funded by the district.

Vallejo Teacher Center
Vallejo City Unified School District
321 Wallace Ave.
Vallejo, Calif. 94590

Director: William Loudon
Phone: 707/644-8921

In this federally funded teacher center, teachers and principals attend training sessions on released time. The training for participants who are new to the center takes place in three 3-day sessions, each followed by on-site classroom observation with feedback relevant to the training cycle content. Activities include lessons by center staff or consultants, large and small group discussions, practice sessions and classroom observations. Second-year participants receive advanced training in subjects such as curriculum development, analyzing teaching effectiveness and classroom management. Principals and resource teachers receive training in instructional supervision in nine morning sessions throughout the school year.

CHAPTER IX

Inservice Education for Special Education:

What's Needed; What's Provided

Teachers generally agree that handicapped children have a right to the free, appropriate education guaranteed them by Public Law 94-142 (the Education for All Handicapped Children Act). Many teachers complain, however, that they are not prepared to cope with the problems and new responsibilities that they and their districts must meet to comply with the federal special education mandates.

Some teachers say, for example, they have a desperate need for time to participate in and to implement individualized education programs (IEPs), to confer with other teachers about mainstreamed children and to keep up with paperwork requirements.

In response, teacher unions are seeking changes in the regulations governing special education activities, and they are urging their affiliates to negotiate more items relating to handicapped children into bargained contracts. A representative of the National Education Association (NEA) noted, for example, that NEA would recommend that "only teachers who have received inservice training in teaching the handicapped" could be assigned to teach them.

Problems in Providing Training

The basic responsibility for inservice training under P.L. 94-142 lies with state education agencies. Nevertheless, local school districts must determine which skills at what levels are needed to carry out the personnel demands of the legislation in their districts, according to attorney Reed Martin in an interview with the *Journal of Learning Disabilities*. Martin, an author, researcher and special education consultant, said administrators must decide as they develop a comprehensive special education program whether to retrain existing personnel or to hire new personnel. And, he noted, administrators must realize that some persons "are just not going to be up to the challenge" of working with handicapped youth — even if inservice education is provided.

Another problem: Shortages of new teachers. The federal Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (BEH) reports that states indicated in their program plans for the 1979-80 school year that they may need as many as 85,000 new special education teachers in the following two years to provide adequate services for all handicapped children. The federal agency adds that colleges and universities are producing only about 20,000 new special education teachers each year.

Who Provides the Training?

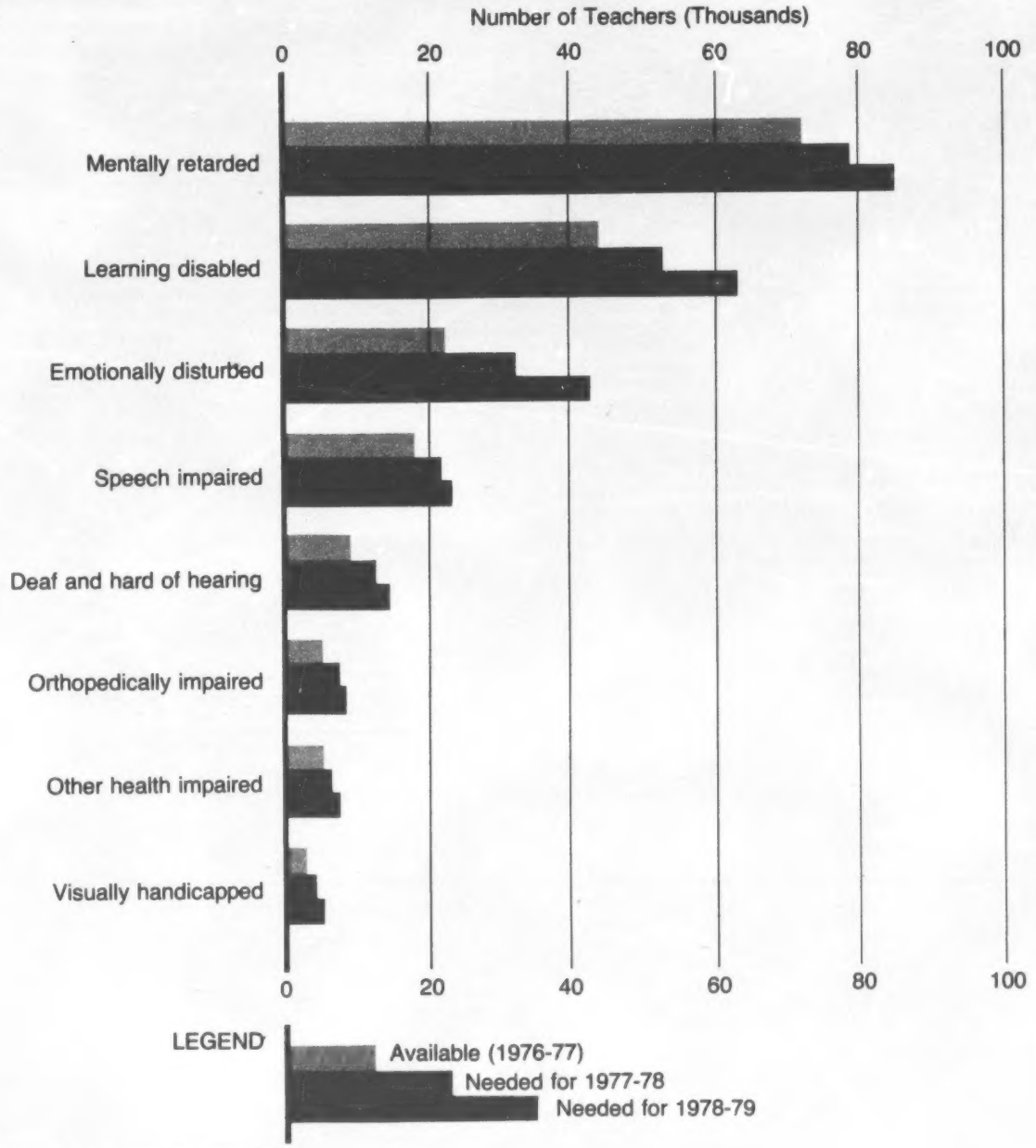
In 1975, the first year of implementation of P.L. 94-142, states offered training emphasizing ways to meet mainstreaming needs to more than 186,000 regular classroom teachers and to more than 49,000 special education teachers, according to BEH.

In 1979, BEH launched a priority program for teachers and administrators aimed at upgrading their skills in planning for and educating handicapped youth. BEH calls the priority program "Regular Education Inservice" or REGI. By 1981, BEH expects to be spending more than $11 million on the program.

In its first year, REGI funded more than 130 individual training projects in 39 states, the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico. Most of the projects (69) are located in institutions of higher education; 14 are in state departments of education; 6 are in individual or combinations of local education agencies.

Regular classroom teachers are in the majority in

Special Education Teachers Available and Needed by Type of Handicapping Condition of Child Served[1]



[1] Some states combine categories.

Source: *Progress Toward a Free Appropriate Public Education.* A Report to Congress on the Implementation of Public Law 94-142. Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.; January 1979.

REGI efforts, says BEH's James E. Siantz, but most projects are using a team approach to training. The teams include administrators, counselors and parents as well as teachers. Twelve of the REGI projects are preparing trainers to teach other school personnel.

BEH also has stepped up other training efforts under way since 1974 by its Division of Personnel Preparation. In the 1979-80 school year, the division funded inservice training for 45,929 regular education teachers and 32,085 special education teachers.

Sixteen Regional Resource Centers supported by BEH have provided inservice training to 8,124 teachers in 40 states. These programs focus on diagnosis of handicapped children, development of individualized programs, vocational planning for secondary students and needs assessments.

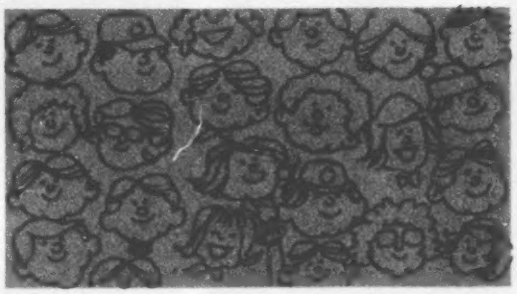
Finally, BEH's Division of Innovation and Development supports inservice training in the area of preschool services. At the core of these training activities is the proposition that prevention and early identification of handicapping conditions is crucial to the provision of appropriate services. BEH reports that approximately 3,000 school personnel have been trained to work with handicapped preschoolers since 1977, largely as a result of this division's work.

More information on current inservice training efforts can be obtained by contacting the appropriate state education agency or BEH (Donohoe Building, 400 6th Street, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20202).

In addition, BEH funds two operations to answer inservice education queries:

The National Inservice Network (Indiana University, 2853 East 10th St., Cottage L, Bloomington, Ind. 47405; phone: 812/337-2734). This service offers a "SCAN" computer search to locate inservice programs. Searches are designed to match key word descriptors with abstracts of projects. To illustrate: the word "rural" can be crossed with "secondary" and "school administrator" to find inservice projects that are training rural secondary school administrators. The SCAN service is free to inservice projects funded by BEH's Division of Personnel Preparation. The charge to others is $4.

Dissemin/Action (Judy Smith, Suite C-4-S, 3705 S. George Mason Drive, Falls Church, Va. 22041; phone: 703/578-1592). The purpose of this service is to provide help to teacher trainers by offering on-site assistance to personnel preparation projects and an information systems clearinghouse.



Eligibility and Service
Public Law 94-142

Children Served			Children Eligible for Service
3.7 million	3.8 million	3.9 million	4.5 to 5.5 million
1978-79	1979-80	1980-81 (BEH goal)	

Teacher Centers: The Place for 'Practical' Training

Many special education authorities see the burgeoning teacher center movement as an ideal opportunity for regular classroom teachers to gain the most practical kind of training to work with handicapped youngsters. This rationale is based on the fact that teachers with every type of expertise and various educational levels come together and can teach each other in a center.

Several operating teacher centers already are geared specifically to the field of special education. One example is the Teacher Center for Handicapped Children tucked away in a vacant butcher shop in Gillett, Wis. Warren Schollaert, the center's director, meets the needs of the center's rural teachers by visiting them in their classrooms and by encouraging them to participate in workshops held at the center in the evening or on weekends.

Other AASA Critical Issues Reports

Keeping Students in School: Problems and Solutions. Student truancy — always a problem — is getting worse, according to administrators who run the nation's schools. This report provides an in-depth look at truancy, as well as other aspects of student attendance. It also details suggested solutions to the attendance problems considered critical by the more than 1,400 school administrators who answered a Critical Issues Survey. It examines the findings of other studies and polls on attendance problems; why students stay away from school; the issue of dropouts (who, how many, why); what demographic trends reveal about attendance patterns in the future; and how schools around the nation are coping with attendance problems through tougher policies and programs aimed at reducing absentee and dropout rates. (79pp; 1979; Stock No. 021-00331)

Staff Dismissal: Problems and Solutions. Who says teachers and other school employees can't be fired? They can. School districts can dismiss teachers and other staff members in cases of incompetency or when declining enrollment or budget problems demand cuts. This report examines these kinds of questions, which were submitted by more than 1,700 AASA members in a Critical Issues Survey: What can be done about incompetence; What are the steps in building a dismissal case; What can be learned from districts that have successfully dismissed staff; What about teacher tenure; Alternatives to RIFfing; Due process requirements. One of 10 "must reading" books selected by the National School Boards Association from among 2,500 new education titles in 1978. (80pp; 1978; Stock No. 021-00512)

The Competency Movement: Problems and Solutions. This report provides a comprehensive analysis of the reasons underlying the minimum competency movement. It answers the questions of more than 1,500 AASA members who responded to a Critical Issues Survey. It includes: Reasons behind the competency movement; Considerations in adopting a policy on minimum competency; What kinds of tests can be used; The pros and cons of issuing a single diploma or certificate and available alternatives; Case studies of how various districts and states are implementing competency requirements. A national clearinghouse on minimum competency testing called this report "perhaps the best single source of information on competency testing." (92pp; 1978; Stock No. 021-00510)

School Energy Crisis: Problems and Solutions. Schools don't have to sit immobilized while they're clobbered by higher and higher energy costs. This report provides answers to the concerns expressed by more than 3,400 AASA members who replied to a Critical Issues Survey. Topics covered include the following: The energy crisis — impact on the nation; The energy crisis — impact on the nation's schools; Energy audits, the basis for savings; How to hire energy consultants; Advice on energy saving construction; Reducing transportation costs; Model programs, ideas, contacts. One of 11 "must reading" books selected by the National School Boards Association in its 1977 annual roundup of education books. (88pp; 1977; Stock No. 021-00380)

How Schools Can Save $$: Problems and Solutions (available February 1980; Stock No. 021-00333).

Ordering Information

Order from the American Association of School Administrators, 1801 N. Moore St., Arlington, Va. 22209. Single copy, $9.95 prepaid (which includes $1 for postage and handling). Multiple copies, $8.95 each. Two to nine copies, 10% discount; write for prices for 10 or more copies. Orders for less than $15 must be accompanied by payment in full. Please include stock numbers.